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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Volume XVII

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Number 4

RESEARCH LIBRARIES IN THE WAR PERIOD, 1939-45¹

LUTHER H. EVANS

CHARACTERISTICS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIES

TO ALL thoughtful Americans, not merely to members of the library profession, it is a cause for heartfelt thanksgiving that we have come out of the most devastating war in human history with our land and cultural possessions unscathed. Thanks to our geographical location, and, even more, to the watchfulness and bravery of our armed forces, our cities, our homes, and our possessions have been spared the destruction visited upon so many other nations across the seas. But global warfare has kindled in us a deeper global consciousness, a freshly quickened realization of the essential interdependence of all peoples. We have come to recognize a pressing moral imperative to help set the world back on its feet again, and to bend our collective energies toward the firm upbuilding of the world's cultural activities. Now, as always, these activities are symbolized by the care and wise use of books. "Burn your books—or, what amounts to the same thing, neglect your books—and you will lose freedom, as surely as if you were to invite Hitler and

his henchmen to rule over you"² is one of the great lessons of this war. Viewed in this light, the librarian's profession, that of preserving and creatively promoting the use of man's recorded knowledge, is no mean one, and the great libraries of this country, steadily carrying on their activities in peace and in war, have played no small part in keeping alive the tradition of the liberal arts. It is not yet time to write the final history of what we have been doing these last six years—full perspective is lacking, and parts of the story are still untold—but a brief chronicle of our principal activities may be of some help in sorting out our ideas about what we are engaged upon today and what we may accomplish in the postwar years.

The *American Library Directory* for 1945 lists about twelve thousand libraries of various types in the United States. Roughly two-thirds of these are public libraries, some eighteen hundred are associated with colleges and universities, about four hundred come under federal or state supervision, and the remainder consist of hospital, institutional, or special collections. In a sense,

² Wendell Willkie, "Freedom and the Liberal Arts," in *Humanities after the War*, ed. by Norman Foerster (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1944), p. 5.

¹ This article was prepared at the request of the American Council of Learned Societies.

any library may be called a research library if it can be used at all for investigation and informational purposes. But the greater the depth and spread of its collections, the more valuable it is for scholarship. A score of our libraries have more than a million volumes; granting the existence of duplicates, the quantitative figures remain formidable. The major research collections, in general, are those that have grown up with the liberal-arts colleges (more than half of which have over twenty-five thousand books), together with certain federal institutions, public libraries in some of the larger cities, and a handful of specially endowed institutions. Few of them are devoted exclusively to the humanities or the social sciences, for the character of libraries is determined by the catholic needs of readers, faculties, and administrators. Research collections today are endowed with phenomenal capacities for reproduction, describable in terms of geometrical rather than arithmetical proportions. Students of library history have commented in particular upon the remarkable growth during the past half-century of the book collections in the American college and university. This has been due not only to increasing recognition, through financial support, of the role of the research library in educative processes—particularly in graduate study—but to marked expansion in size of the academic institutions themselves, requiring libraries to support additional curriculums, extend their subject ranges to newly developed branches of study, and strengthen their resources in already well-established fields. Added to this has been a pressing necessity to keep pace, so far as budgets allow, with the ever increasing quantity of material flowing from the world's presses in the form of books, serial publications, documents,

pamphlets, and ephemera. The present-day research library has come to represent not only the reflective memory but the active consciousness of the human race. Dr. Pierce Butler's comment is well worth quoting:

The Librarian may be a technical specialist—in the technologies of book preservation and use—but he is never a subject specialist. He is equally concerned with every ramification of every science and of every humanistic discipline, not for their own sake, but for the sake of scholarship as a whole. The library may therefore be regarded as an integrating machine in which all the diverse intellectual factors of civilization are reduced to a single index value and library history as a running record of its fluctuations.³

REFERENCE SERVICES DURING THE WAR

Perhaps the easiest generalization that may be offered about the activities of research libraries during the years of national emergency and war is that their reference and book-finding functions became primary for a while, outstripping in daily importance their services for personal education, academic research, and diversion. In Washington, the great government libraries by their very nature became key-points for quick supply of information needed for the conduct of national defense and the war; but total mobilization was required, and a wide net was cast throughout the country for any collections having data of value for the war effort. As might be expected, scientific and technical materials were in greatest demand. The Army Map Service, for example, searching out every available scrap of geographical information on areas of military or strategic importance, exhaustively inventoried the map resources of the country and established branch offices at New York, Chi-

³ *Books and Libraries in Wartime* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 10.

cago, and San Francisco, where it could draw more easily on materials in the New York Public Library, the University of Chicago Libraries, the University of California, and many other collections. The Office of Scientific Research and Development, directing research (much of which required pre-existent university facilities) on the improvement of weapons for the armed forces, army medical care, and the development of substitutes for scarce basic commodities, imposed upon the country's libraries the task of locating all relevant printed matter in the natural and applied-science fields. A great deal of the research of these and other agencies, conducted in deepest secrecy, is only just beginning to come to light.

War investigation has demonstrated that while much in a library may belong in the "little-used" category, librarians as a group can ignore nothing which may conceivably be needed for present or future research. This is only a fresh recognition of what we have observed for a long time. The humanistic scholar, for his part, will not only call for standard monographs and learned journals within his field; if, say, he is studying a particular literary period, he will also need large quantities of pamphlets, manuscripts, and ephemera to sharpen his subjective awareness of the background. The social-sciences investigator, with the zeal for primary data which has particularly characterized his studies since World War I, is quite as exacting in his demands. A number of libraries which had been patiently accumulating materials in some special field found them to be of greater research value than had been anticipated. The Detroit Public Library, to mention one example, had been gathering together publications on India during peacetime because the automotive

industry had been interested in that country as a field for export; army investigators found them helpful in planning military bases. Shortly before Pearl Harbor, Columbia University Library had accepted for storage a large quantity of printed matter from the Japan Institute, Inc., and the New York Public Library had received the Japanese Tourist Bureau's picture collections; needless to say, these did not gather dust on the shelves. Quick marshaling of out-of-the-way data not infrequently proved to be of vital importance. The Library Association of Portland, Oregon, once was asked on short notice to muster exact information about every port in Nigeria for a ship reported in jeopardy which needed to find harbor but, for its own security, could not wireless its precise location. Such examples can easily be multiplied.

Interlibrary loans rose in volume as war activity intensified. College and university libraries relaxed considerably their peacetime restrictions on allowing less common books to leave their buildings; when volumes were needed for legitimate war research, some made direct loans to individuals by mail instead of through the usual processes. Microfilm and photostat requests mounted to meet the manifold needs of government. During the first five months after Pearl Harbor the Library of Congress copied well over a million-and-a-half pages onto film; run into a single continuous strip, it would extend more than thirty-two linear miles. Photoduplication laboratories proved a blessing in the case of many simultaneous requests for the same scarce items; and the low cost of microfilms has brought about their use as a research tool on a wholesale basis. An interesting new step in library economy was taken by the Army Medical Library, which had been lending some thirteen thousand volumes

a year; at the beginning of 1943 it announced that it would furnish microfilms free to all government offices and to individuals connected with accredited institutions when this method of securing research material was preferred. That the move was not unwelcome is evidenced by the rise in its monthly figures of pages copied, from 34,948 in January, 1943, to 128,263 in the last month of the year. German libraries, prior to the war, had been planning to supplant interlibrary loans with microfilm copying, and it seems likely that the coming years will see an increasing trend in this direction in our own country.

In greater or lesser degree, the impact of war was felt by all libraries, from the largest, serving an entire nation, down to the small public institution, ministering to its own local community. Population shifts produced by industrial expansion created special regional problems. Quiet sectors suddenly became crowded communities, with a consequently larger proportion of people visiting the local library in search of reading matter or the answers to bothersome questions. Many, in the endeavor to learn new trades, came looking for vocational information. Industries called upon near-by libraries to supply technical material. The Los Angeles Public Library reported in 1941 that its most popular subject was aeronautical engineering, since more than 60 per cent of the nation's planes were being manufactured in the surrounding area. Extension of the Selective Service Act in the same year, organization of civilian defense, and the introduction of consumer rationing brought many requests for information on governmental regulations, air-raid precautions, food conservation, and kindred topics. Later, war information centers were set up in many public and some college libraries to furnish

quick answers. These had the support of the Office of War Information and the United States Office of Education, receiving special publications and exhibit material of current interest.

While most libraries went about their everyday business in much the same fashion as before—though at greatly accelerated tempo—some found occasion to extend their services to the community in a more positive manner. Iowa State College Library, in addition to supplying technical information for industrial firms and investigators, prepared weekly radio broadcasts dealing with current publications, publicized defense-group programs on war bonds, food conservation, and allied topics, and encouraged campus discussion groups. The Cleveland Public Library established an intercultural library to promote exchange of views among the different ethnic groups in its locality. Each nationality (there were twenty-four initially) was assigned an alcove containing a selection of books written in its own language together with materials in English dealing with the history and culture of the group and a display of art objects. The Detroit Public Library conducted an energetic community program, strikingly illustrated by its issue, shortly after the much-publicized local riots of June, 1943, of a guide to factual works explaining the findings of scientists on the question of race.

College and university libraries saw the character of their clientele considerably altered during the war. By the end of 1942, nearly five hundred academic institutions had been declared eligible centers for Army and Navy specialized training programs, and civilian student enrolments had dropped precipitately. Undergraduate curriculums were accelerated, and graduate studies—except in

such war-priority subjects as medicine—declined in volume as the young men of our country put on their uniforms. Faculty members, bearing heavier teaching loads during a longer academic year, or working long hours on war-necessary investigations, had less opportunity to carry on their peacetime studies. Much of the military instruction was performed by the textbook method, with little or no emphasis on background reading. Young men who passed their days in the classroom and on the drill-field found the library more valuable for recreational reading than for serious research. Harvard's report for 1942 is not untypical, citing many of its smaller libraries either closed for the duration or turned over to the armed forces, and reporting "the fewest number of visiting scholars" since 1939. Significantly, too, it points out a marked decrease in book-borrowing by individuals, attributed to a more than 50 per cent drop in graduate school enrolment coupled with absorption of undergraduates on streamlined study schedules.

While the mass training programs of the armed forces did not depend heavily on library resources, special curriculums furnished exceptions. The Navy's school for colonial administration at Columbia University drew considerably on the New York Public Library's outstanding files of official publications of the leading countries and their possessions. A number of libraries made special efforts to increase their resources in subjects studied by trainees. The University of California Library, for example, implemented linguistic study programs by searching out dictionaries and grammars not only for Chinese and Japanese but also for Mongolian, Manchurian, and other less familiar tongues required by far-wandering military forces. Purchases by academic

libraries to accommodate trainees lay chiefly in such fields as aeronautics, chemistry, engineering, medicine, meteorology, mathematics, economics, geography, and foreign languages.

WAR DOCUMENTATION

Publications of our government were much in demand during wartime. While the output of official material increased considerably, owing to the need of acquainting the public with new laws and regulations arising from the emergency and with the vastly expanded activities of the government, there was a correspondingly strong trend to shorten mailing lists and to effect economies in the printing and distribution of new material. After much negotiating by the American Library Association and other interested bodies, the Office of Government Reports (later the Office of War Information) agreed to place some four thousand libraries of all types on its circulating list to receive publications relating to the war effort which were deemed suitable for general distribution. But this left out the large number which were issued in confidential and secret editions or run off in near-print form with such limited circulation that libraries were unable to secure copies. With the end of the war strenuous attempts have been made to track down enough of these to stock at least the main depositories and research centers of the country. The Army and Navy have agreed to release 150 copies of each of their departmental publications for distribution through the Library of Congress as they become down-graded from the "secret," "confidential," and "restricted" categories. The Office of Scientific Research and Development has made similar arrangements in the case of some three million copies of its wartime issues, and it is hoped that other agencies

will follow suit. Libraries are benefiting from termination of other national wartime activities. The Army Map Service plans to place sets of thousands of its maps in some 150 research centers throughout the country; the Office of War Information has turned over its enormous collection of photographs of the American scene to the Library of Congress; and the Office of Censorship, as soon as the war ended, released about 360,000 books accumulated in the course of its work.

Government production of motion pictures during the war years has been prodigious. In the middle 1930's it was calculated that about seventeen thousand reels of film were in government custody; in 1940 the figure was set at sixty thousand, and it had multiplied to three hundred thousand in 1943. Even the latter is dwarfed by the one million reels of surplus 16-millimeter film estimated to be on hand at the end of 1945, to say nothing of uncounted 35-millimeter negatives and surplus 35-millimeter prints. In co-operation with the National Archives and the Museum of Modern Art in New York City, which had been performing pioneer work in collecting cinema material for historical research, the Library of Congress created a national motion-picture archive in 1945. It will be world wide in scope, accumulating material without restriction as to subject, title, or field of knowledge. In addition to government transfers, the archive includes paper prints of some thirty-five hundred motion pictures deposited for copyright between 1894 and 1912—the incunabula of the cinema industry—and a selection of some nine hundred titles chosen each year from entertainment and documentary films produced in the United States and abroad. Thus it will preserve for future historians a first-hand

record of the changing aspects of today's world.

The significance of the motion picture as an organ of expression, an instrument for conveying information, and a serious subject for research is becoming increasingly recognized. Special topical collections have long been put to effective use by the American Museum of Natural History, the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial Association, the Wistar Institute, and other organizations. Visual education departments now operate in colleges and universities of virtually every state in the union; one of their wartime services was helping the Treasury and the Office of War Information with distribution of films explaining matters of public interest. The Cleveland Public Library went one step further by establishing a film-lending library in 1942, using materials from the Office of War Information, the National Film Board of Canada, and the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs. It seems clear, as a result of the vast improvements in the technique of informing and educating through motion pictures which have been achieved by our armed forces, that this medium is going to take a significant place in the scheme of postwar instruction, and, in consequence, will be of growing concern to librarians.

Development of cinema collections is only one indication of the attention that has been devoted to documenting the present. Research libraries have realized that it is not only obligatory but economical to accumulate anything bearing on the war while it has actually been in progress, rather than to wait for some future time when much printed and written matter will have become rare or have totally disappeared from view. When the United States entered the war, a central Committee on Conservation of Cultural

Resources was formed in Washington, stemming from the National Resources Planning Board. Composed of custodians of the federal government's cultural, scientific, and historical possessions joining together with members of professional organizations, it gave much publicity to the need for preserving war-significant data, however ephemeral in nature. Similar committees were organized in various states to offer more specific advice. Many libraries had already begun the undertaking in a systematic way. The largest special collections at the present time are those of the Hoover Library on War, Revolution, and Peace—which had long since become pre-eminent for the study of communism, fascism, national socialism, and other vital movements flowing from the first World War—and of Yale University Library, which early in the critical period had asked alumni all over the world to send in anything of relevance. At the University of Illinois, Washington and Lee University, and a score of other centers there is now a wealth of pamphlets, letters, books, and propaganda matter through which the multifarious aspects of the war may be explored. In Washington the amount of material accumulated by the Library of Congress and the National Archives is prodigious; and it is noteworthy that the War Department and many agencies directly connected with the national effort not only have gone to great length to conserve their records but have set up special units of writers to sift their vast files and prepare written histories of their complex activities.

ACQUISITIONS FROM OVERSEAS

In their endeavor to gather essential materials, libraries have been confronted with the insurmountable problem of being largely shut off from foreign sources

of supply. The war has emphasized how interdependent is the world of scholarship and how greatly we had been relying upon acquisitions from other countries to support advanced research in America. Half of the annual expenditures of our libraries prior to the war were in foreign markets; a recent survey has shown that some four thousand scientific and technical periodicals alone were on order in 1939 and 1940 from Germany, Italy, Japan, and the nations of Europe and Asia which had been overrun by the Axis. Great gaps now exist in our files of books and learned journals. After the war in Europe began, most libraries chose to have material for which they had placed orders stored on the Continent rather than risk losses in the uncertainties of transatlantic shipping. Whether it has survived is only now being determined by a mission we have sent to locate stockpiles in Leipzig and other central European cities. During 1941 scattered consignments of books were still arriving via Lisbon or Siberia for such institutions as the Newberry Library, which kept contact with agents abroad; but after Pearl Harbor it was only from Great Britain that libraries continued to receive direct shipments on a scale comparable to that of the pre-war period. The Library of Congress, thanks to energetic representatives operating overseas with the help of military and State Department authorities, has alone managed to keep a stream of material flowing in from Europe, Africa, and Asia; but between what it has acquired and what it needs to satisfy research demands there is still a huge gulf.

While individual libraries were barred during the war from securing what they needed from enemy and enemy-occupied countries, government intelligence and scientific investigation insistently de-

mandated as much of what was currently being published in those same countries as could be obtained. A Joint Committee on Importations, formed by seven national library associations, sent agents to neutral countries on buying missions with consolidated want-lists, and succeeded in arranging the release of Axis-originated shipments which had been intercepted by British authorities in Bermuda. These measures were of help, but government agencies took over the major burden of providing for their needs. The Interdepartmental Committee for the Acquisition of Foreign Publications, a co-ordinating body gathering material through the Department of State and other sources, deposited nearly two hundred thousand pieces of printed matter and more than five thousand reels of microfilm in the Library of Congress between June, 1943, and June, 1945; during recent months it has been especially helpful in securing large quantities of Orientalia not otherwise obtainable. Certain publications were so scarce, yet so much in demand for war research, that reprinting in this country was deemed necessary. Under the First War Powers Act, approved on December 18, 1941, the Alien Property Custodian had been empowered to take over copyrights of nationals of enemy countries—and, in some cases, of alien-occupied nations—on the government's behalf. Upon this basis licenses began to be granted in 1942 for reissue through microfilm or photo-offset processes of a large number of scientific and technical publications. During the last twelve months of the war nearly a thousand volumes and pamphlets were reproduced in this fashion from German and other Axis-printed originals.

The war cut into a number of ambitious projects for duplicating material abroad which we could never have hoped

to obtain in original form but which was required for research in the various fields of learning. The long-standing arrangement by the Rockefeller Foundation and James B. Wilbur Fund for copying documents in British archives bearing upon American history was brought to a halt in 1939. In 1940 the Modern Language Association of America turned its photostating and microcopying program in the fields of philology and literature toward books and manuscripts in the United States rather than in Europe. The Indic Section of the Library of Congress, supported by the American Council of Learned Societies, had arranged in 1940 to have a camera installed at the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal in Calcutta, and had formed film-exchange agreements with a score of Indian educational institutions. International developments interrupted the project after about sixty-five hundred pages of manuscripts had been filmed for us, including medieval exemplars of Hindu ritual, Jain and Buddhist texts, and a handful of the old Kerala ritualistic materials of southern India. Another war casualty was an American Council of Learned Societies project for microcopying medical works, gazettes, and the *Hsia-Hsia* documents at Peiping.

As a result of the emergency, one large project was born which happily has survived throughout the war. In June, 1940, representatives of universities, government agencies, and libraries met to discuss the then ominous European situation in a Conference on Microcopying Materials for Research in Foreign Depositories, jointly sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the Library of Congress. Among its major decisions were an immediate copying plan aiming both at aiding American scholars and at preserving copies of liter-

ary treasures abroad which were endangered by the war; and a long-range undertaking for the post-hostilities period, when it was thought that the center of learning might well have shifted from a devastated Europe to the United States. Scholars in the fields of literature, philology, music, the fine arts, law, science, medieval studies, and kindred subjects were thereupon asked to submit wantlists of essential materials abroad which they wanted to have reproduced. The consolidated results called for more than twenty-five thousand items, totaling over ten million pages. Selections for immediate duplication were made in a broad fashion, with the whole picture of civilization in mind. It was decided to concentrate immediately upon what could be secured from English libraries, and filming operations began in 1941 with the aid of a Rockefeller Foundation grant of \$30,000 (later increased by an additional \$100,000). Thanks to the generous co-operation of British authorities, work was carried on without serious interruption throughout the war, though much of what was needed had been evacuated for security to storage vaults and the coal mines of Wales. By the end of 1945 about a thousand reels of film had been received through the British Manuscripts Project, as it is now called. These include the Tanner papers at Oxford; all of the Persian, Arabic, and Urdu manuscripts at Cambridge; the Amherst papers in the Public Records Office; and valuable material from the British Museum and the National Library of Wales. The films are available to scholars through the Library of Congress.

EVACUATIONS OF RARIORA

The British Manuscripts Project originated in a very real fear, which was expressed at meetings of library associa-

tions and learned societies, that war might bring vast destruction upon priceless original documents in the libraries of Europe. The fear was far from groundless; by the summer of 1941 we had had reports of serious damage to twenty-five libraries in England alone, and at the close of that year the toll of books destroyed in Britain was estimated at twenty million—to say nothing of great catastrophes on the continent of Europe and in the cultural centers of Asia. As likelihood grew that America might be brought into the war, serious attention was focused on protection of our own irreplaceable treasures from possible aerial attack. Indeed, the late President Roosevelt, when he called together a committee to discuss plans for the library at Hyde Park which stands today as his memorial, is reported to have expressed an opinion, influenced by the ominous outlook, that collections of rare material should be established outside metropolitan areas.⁴ After Pearl Harbor a number of larger libraries in municipal sites near the east and west coasts shifted their most valuable possessions to prearranged storage places. The New York Public Library deposited about twenty-seven thousand books, prints, and manuscripts in near-by bank vaults and in a well-guarded storehouse at Saratoga Springs, New York—marking yet another episode in the journeyings of its Gutenberg Bible, the Tickhill Psalter, and the first printing of Christopher Columbus' letter of February 15, 1493, announcing the discovery of the New World. Similarly, treasures of the National Gallery of Art, the Folger Shakespeare Library, the Army Medical Library, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, The Pierpont Morgan Library, the

⁴Lawrence Clark Powell, "The Functions of Rare Books," *College and Research Libraries*, I (December, 1939), 97.

Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, and other institutions were laid away in quiet rustication until 1944, when it was judged that the danger period had passed. To insure that texts would be on hand, some of the libraries made film or photostat copies beforehand. The Huntington Library found itself in a position of particular advantage, having pursued a systematic policy for more than a decade of photostating literary and historical rariora to provide use copies in place of costly originals. Through this means it was also enabled to supply other libraries with duplicates to increase the chances of survival of texts in case America should be hard hit.

Thanks to extensive preparatory work during the spring and summer of 1941—to a considerable extent voluntary labor on the part of its loyal staff—the Library of Congress speedily evacuated a total of 4,789 cases of books, manuscripts, prints, maps, and music after Pearl Harbor. How sizeable and difficult was this undertaking can be pictured by pointing out that if these materials were shelved side by side, in normal fashion, they would extend a distance of more than eight miles. Under guard and in wartime secrecy they were placed in storage at the University of Virginia, Washington and Lee University, the Virginia Military Institute, and Denison University. The priceless documents of American democracy—the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, the United States Constitution, and manuscripts of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address and Second Inaugural—were laid tenderly away in the United States Bullion Depository at Fort Knox, Kentucky, accompanied by the Lincoln Cathedral copy of Magna Carta and the Gutenberg Bible. Considering what might have happened had events taken a different course, one can-

not regret that such thoroughgoing precautions were taken to insure their safety.

Some of the precious documents of our imperiled allies found refuge in the United States. Magna Carta, which had been sent to America for exhibition at the New York World's Fair of 1939-40, was intrusted to the Library of Congress by the British government during the war years rather than expose it to the dangers of an Atlantic crossing. After the struggle began in the Far East in 1937, scarce Chinese books flowed into American libraries. This was due in no small part to their owners' willingness to sell their possessions at relatively low prices to save them from theft or destruction by invading armies. Immediately before Pearl Harbor, nearly three thousand of the rarest treasures of the National Library of Peiping were deposited for war safekeeping in the Library of Congress. By the generosity of the Chinese government these are being filmed so that American scholars may draw upon their rich resources. In return, three additional copies of the films are being supplied to Chinese libraries. By the end of October, 1945, 2,558 works had been copied, representing about 2,500,000 book pages. Of particular interest are numerous original impressions dating from the Sung dynasty, including an edition of the *Wên-hsüan*, an early sixth-century prose and verse anthology, struck off in 1023 from blocks carved about A.D. 930. Next to the *Diamond Sûtra* scroll (A.D. 868) in the British Museum, this is the oldest known specimen of Chinese printing. Noteworthy also are some 400 local histories of the Ming period; about 160 novels, short stories, and plays either printed before 1644 or written out by hand during the seventeenth century; and the *Ming Shih-lu*, or Veritable Rec-

ords of the Ming dynasty, 309 manuscript volumes comprising the basic foundation for all future authentic histories of that period.

LATIN-AMERICAN PROJECTS

Libraries here and in Latin America have formed firmer bonds of friendship during the last six years. The far-reaching activities which have been undertaken derive not only from a shift of geographical interests caused by curtailment of overseas communications but from increased implementation by our government of its "Good Neighbor Policy." In 1938 the Division of Cultural Relations (later the Division of Science, Education, and Art, and, later still, the Division of Cultural Co-operation) was established in the Department of State to further reciprocal intellectual, educational, and cultural enterprises between the peoples of the United States and other countries. Owing to the onset of war soon after it was created, the larger part of its activities has been concerned with the Western Hemisphere. In June, 1941, the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs (later, the Office of Inter-American Affairs) was also created within the Office of Emergency Management, aiming among its functions to co-ordinate cultural and commercial relations between the American nations as a means of promoting hemisphere solidarity.

The American Library Association has been especially active on behalf of these agencies. By the end of 1944 its "Books for Latin America" project had sent more than seventy thousand volumes to about seven hundred public, school, and research libraries and had furnished about two thousand subscriptions to periodicals. The Association also established the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin

in Mexico, the Biblioteca Americana de Nicaragua at Managua, and the Biblioteca Artigas-Washington in Montevideo, which offer collections of United States materials to the public and research workers and function as cultural centers with the aid of local organizations. The Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin has set up a microfilm laboratory and begun a union catalog of libraries in Mexico. The American Library Association has, in addition, supplied professional literature to Latin-American librarians, aided in conduct of library schools, and issued various publications, including a survey of book collections in United States colleges and universities which bear on Latin-American history.

Noteworthy among the acquisitions projects initiated during the war years is that of Brown University Library, which has filmed several thousand books printed in Spanish America before 1800 from copies at the Biblioteca Nacional in Santiago de Chile. Exchanges between the libraries of the Americas have also increased considerably. An earnest of the good-will that now exists is supplied by the sizeable contributions American libraries have made toward the rehabilitation of the Biblioteca Nacional del Perú and the Sociedad Geográfica de Lima, which were destroyed by fire in May, 1943. The Library of Congress has been especially active in the Latin-American field. During the fiscal year 1944-45, for example, it exchanged material with 279 institutions. It has published bibliographies of Latin-American music, fine and folk arts, *belles-lettres* in English translation, and periodicals; it has continued its collaborative work with the American Council of Learned Societies on the annual *Handbook of Latin American Studies*; and in 1942 it issued a survey of *Investigations in Progress in the United*

States in the Field of Latin American Humanistic and Social Science Studies. Depository sets of the Library of Congress catalog and hundreds of thousands of cards covering selected subjects have been furnished to many institutions. Talking-books of Portuguese short stories, poetry, and other literary material were presented with a recording machine to the Istituto Benjamin Constant for the use of the Brazilian blind. An Archive of Hispanic Culture, established in 1940, has accumulated thousands of slides and photographs of Latin-American art which have been lent and exhibited throughout the United States.

MICROFILMING PROJECTS AT HOME

The war has turned attention increasingly to photocopying projects based on material in our own country. By the end of the thirties the value of microfilming for scholarly purposes had become generally recognized—witness, for example, the beginning of publication of doctoral dissertations in this form—and most of the larger libraries had either installed their own filming equipment or established local arrangements for photoduplication. Some have made a regular practice of filming their important newspapers to offset deterioration of the originals. For research libraries, microfilming has opened up the exciting possibility of obtaining at comparatively low cost a copy of virtually anything they need in manuscript or print. Once a negative has been made, positives can be supplied wholesale. Hence microfilming has come to be a kind of large-scale republication medium for library purposes. A few instances of how this has applied may be mentioned. It has become possible to purchase films of all known extant American periodicals between 1741 and 1800, and a project is nearing completion for

copying all English books printed before 1600 which were listed in the Pollard and Redgrave *Short-Title Catalogue*. Entire files of the *London Times* and other English or American journals have been copied. The University of Chicago Libraries have distributed films of the United States Supreme Court briefs. Harvard University Library in 1939 began a foresighted project—curtailed somewhat by the war—to supply films of thirty-seven newspapers published in the principal countries of the world, starting with the issues of July 1, 1938, as a contribution to future historical research. The Library of Congress has copied all of the materials listed in the *Census of Indic Manuscripts in the United States and Canada* (New Haven, 1938), and, in collaboration with the University of North Carolina, has been engaged in filming early legislative journals of the American colonies, territories, and states. The "richest treasure house of information ever left by a single man"—as Gilbert Chinard described the Thomas Jefferson collection in the Library of Congress—was microfilmed in its entirety in 1944. Sets of positive prints were acquired by the American Philosophical Society, the New York Public Library, Denver Public Library, and the libraries of the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Chicago, the University of Minnesota, the University of Virginia, and Columbia, Duke, Harvard, Princeton, and Stanford universities. Thus a collection of some sixty-five thousand pages of seminal source material for American history and letters is now accessible to investigators from coast to coast.

NEW APPROACHES TO LIBRARY PROBLEMS

Not only microfilming, but improved techniques of printing by photographic

methods have engaged the attention of research libraries during the war. The photo-offset (lithoprint) process, for example, has made possible publication of the *Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards* and the Association of Research Libraries' forthcoming reprint of the British Museum book catalog at costs far less than might be entailed by older methods. One of the newest means of reproducing material in quantity is microprint, one form of which is designed to copy a hundred pages of a book or manuscript on each side of a small sheet of photographic paper. A special reading machine is, of course, required, as in the case of microfilm. Thus far the most ambitious project employing microprint has been republication of the more than four million pages of the British House of Commons *Sessional Papers*, sponsored by the American Historical Association. The Sabin, Evans, and Harisse bibliographies of Americana and the Church catalog of English literature have also been reissued in microprint form, and the Theater Library Association has projected a "Microprint Drama Library" which will contain five thousand plays representative of the British drama from 1500 to 1800 and the American stage from its beginnings to 1830.

Microprint furnished the basis for a most stimulating and original suggestion for solving some of the problems of library growth and of cataloging. In *The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library* (New York, 1944), Fremont Rider, librarian of Wesleyan University, proposed a "microcard" to replace the well-known catalog card; this would have the catalog description on one side and the actual book on the other!—in microprint form. Thus the little-used materials of a research library would be reduced in bulk to virtual nothingness, could be

filed without difficulty, and might be served quickly to an investigator through reading machines. Co-operative production of microcards by groups of libraries would disseminate copies of any given book at low cost, and agreements might evolve by which each would undertake to produce and supply the others with microcards of all books in an assigned subject field. There are still many technical difficulties to overcome, but if they can be mastered, it is likely that Mr. Rider's proposals will be adopted in some form by many institutions.

How to find space for yearly accretions of new material is a problem which increasingly plagues our librarians. Building supplies were severely rationed during the war period, and institutions like the University of Chicago Libraries, which had to abandon new construction planned just before Pearl Harbor, were hard put to squeeze in additional volumes. Many had to divert building space to accommodate groups of war investigators. One solution for book overflows which had been supported by thirteen midwestern institutions under the University of Chicago's leadership was co-operative erection of a storage center where a number of libraries might lease space for little-used volumes. This idea (the origins of which have been traced to a suggestion offered by President Eliot of Harvard in 1902) was embodied in the New England Deposit Library, opened for service at Boston on March 2, 1942. Harvard University Library, the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenaeum, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and six other institutions in the area which collaborated in its erection share the storage space together. It is so operated that volumes called for may be delivered expeditiously to any of the participating members, thus providing a

partial pooling of resources. After only a year and a half of existence it was reported to be "comfortably full," and expectations were that another unit of the same type might be required before very long. Now that the war has ended, much new construction is in prospect. Harvard is erecting a building devoted exclusively to the needs of undergraduates. The Army Medical Library—which during the war years leased space in the Allen Memorial Medical Library at Cleveland to accommodate its overflows and to provide protection for rariora—is now planning a larger home in the national capital, near the Library of Congress Annex.

CATALOGING AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AIDS

Since the appearance of the preliminary second edition of the *A.L.A. Catalog Rules* in 1941, library literature has been full of discussion of the entire cataloging process and of how to readjust present methods to master the increasing flood of printed matter. War investigation has emphasized the need to create adequate card-entries for every type of material as quickly as possible so that it may get into the hands of the reader. Much has been written expounding the "bibliographic" and the "pragmatic" schools of thought on cataloging procedures, and doubtless much more will be written before final agreement is reached. During the war many libraries diverged from established practices to speed urgently required books through the cataloging process. Development of a revised code representing the consensus of American librarians has necessarily been a slow process. The Library of Congress determined to draft a new set of rules for its own use early in 1942. Since many other institutions are dependent upon its cataloging services, a series of conferences was held to crystallize the views of

libraries throughout the country. In 1944 the American Library Association indicated that if the new code were found generally acceptable it would not undertake a further revision of the preliminary second edition of its own rules. After much deliberation and surveying of opinion the Library of Congress published its proposals for changes in descriptive cataloging rules and submitted them for general criticism in the spring of 1946. Their criterion is defined in terms of service to the interests of a majority of readers, aiming to insure clear, accurate, and effective entries and eliminate non-essential matter.

Helping the research student maintain an up-to-date conspectus of the increasing body of knowledge reported in print has been of much concern to librarians. Bibliographies have multiplied during the last six years, most of them in answer to special war needs. Some libraries issued periodic bulletins containing prepared abstracts of timely publications. In the scholarly fields, cumulative indexing services to current material have multiplied during the past decade but they are still capable of much improvement. The humanities and the social sciences in particular are still not comprehensively covered. In 1938 a Joint Committee on Indexing and Abstracting in the Major Fields of Research was organized to examine the most pressing problems and try to obtain solutions satisfactory alike to compiler, research worker, and librarian. With support from the American Library Association, the Association of Research Libraries, and a number of other organizations, it has embarked upon surveys of indexing, abstracting, and digest services in the fields of humanistic, scientific, social science, professional, and business literature. By the middle of 1943, despite inadequate

financing, it had completed initial studies of services received by the University of California Library and institutions in the San Francisco Bay area.

A most important step in dissemination of bibliographical data was the production in book form, under the sponsorship of the Association of Research Libraries, of the *Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards*, which had been in the planning stage for more than a decade. This began in 1942 and was completed—with a total of 167 volumes—in the early part of 1946. It consists of photo-offset reproductions, eighteen to a page, of the nearly two million Library of Congress author and cross-index cards issued up to July 31, 1942, as they are filed in a depository card catalog. A total of 425 copies were printed, enabling many institutions which hitherto have been unable to set aside space and funds to house and maintain a depository card catalog to secure one for everyday reference in relatively compact form.

UNION CATALOGS

The national Union Catalog maintained by the Library of Congress continued its services during the war period, despite removal for several years to Charlottesville, Virginia, for greater security. With thirteen million card entries it has become the most basic reference tool in existence; yet the exhaustive search for scarce books to help the war effort demonstrated that it is still far from complete, and many want-lists had to be circulated for titles it was unable to locate. A committee of the Association of Research Libraries was formed in 1942 to give special attention to its expansion. Present goals call for locating at least one copy of every important reference book in the United States somewhere in the

country, preferably in several geographical areas. Entries from the important regional union catalogs at Philadelphia and Cleveland are now being incorporated; and a project is under way to interfile new titles sifted from more than seven million slips for American publications up to 1840, and several million more between that date and 1877, which resulted from the work of the American Imprints Inventory branch of the Historical Records Survey. Many libraries regularly contribute entries for their more unusual acquisitions. About a hundred, moreover, have volunteered to make a partial or complete check of their holdings against the *Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards*, supplying the Union Catalog with entries not found there. This is a long and laborious task—Harvard, for example, estimated that several years would be required to perform its share of the task—but, if carried out faithfully in co-operating libraries, it will mark a long stride toward what a visionary librarian of a century ago referred to as “that cherished dream of scholars, a *universal catalogue*.”⁵ And if the Union Catalog can be brought to relative completeness, it might someday be the basis of a publication like the great *Deutscher Gesamtkatalog*.

Regional union catalogs accompanied by co-operative library undertakings have come very much to the fore since the middle thirties. Until then most areal union catalogs (with a few notable exceptions like the California State Catalog) consisted of Library of Congress depository sets with entries interfiled from additional libraries which prepared their own printed cards. Growing realization of the desirability of pooling book re-

⁵ C. C. Jewett, *A Plan for Stereotyping Catalogues by Separate Titles* (Washington, 1851), p. 13.

sources through interlibrary loans and co-operative arrangements within a specific locality, the availability of an abundance of accessory labor from the Work Projects Administration, and improvement in photographic methods of reproducing library cards were among the chief factors which led to creation of a number of areal union catalogs during the years immediately preceding the war—including those at Cleveland, Philadelphia, and Denver, each of which contains several million entries. A survey published in 1942 listed forty-three union catalogs covering particular regions, of which twenty-five dealt with special subject fields or types of material. Notable among those inaugurated since 1939 are those of the Vermont Free Public Library Commission, which seeks to include every library in its state, and that of the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center, which is covering the holdings of twenty-seven large research institutions in Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, and British Columbia. A number of subject surveys have also been started on a national or regional basis. The Census Library Project of the Library of Congress began in 1939 to compile a union catalog of demographic and population materials of the nations of the world, canvassing special collections throughout the country. The University of Chicago has been compiling entries for all art books in Chicago; and the Boston Medical Library is performing a similar service for medical literature in the major Massachusetts collections.

UNION LISTS AND SURVEYS OF RESOURCES

Published union lists are highly useful tools, showing the student where he may find specific types of material. A major accomplishment during the war years

was the issue, in 1943, of the second edition of the *Union List of Serials in Libraries of the United States and Canada*. In scope this was considerably larger than the first edition (1927) and its two supplements (1931 and 1933); it covered the holdings of more than 600 libraries, as compared with the previous 225, and amplified the total of individual titles from about 75,000 to over 115,000. A supplement issued in 1945 supplied additional holdings reported up to the end of 1943. Noteworthy in the new edition was the inclusion of numbered monograph series and annual publications recording or summarizing research progress in specific fields. Other recently published union lists cover serials in libraries of the San Francisco Bay region (1939), southern California (1939), Indiana (1940), Colorado and Wyoming (1942), Milwaukee (1939), Denver (1942), and Chicago (1944), and Louisiana and Arkansas newspapers in libraries of those states (1941 and 1942, respectively). The Philadelphia Bibliographical Center has been issuing a sorely needed tool, the *Union List of Microfilms* (1942, with later supplements), based on acquisitions reported by libraries throughout the country.

Several guides bearing on the humanities deserve special mention. In 1940 publication of the *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in the United States and Canada*, by Seymour de Ricci and W. J. Wilson, was completed, a collaborative undertaking sponsored by the General Education Board, the American Council of Learned Societies, and the Library of Congress. With the appearance in the same year of *Incunabula in American Libraries: A Second Census*, edited by Margaret Bingham Stillwell, scholars were informed of more than thirty-five thousand copies of some eleven thousand

fifteenth-century imprints in American, Canadian, and Mexican collections. In 1944 William Warner Bishop issued the *Checklist of American Copies of "Short-Title Catalogue" Books*, which located a large percentage of the titles inventoried in Pollard and Redgrave and turned up a number not contained in that authoritative bibliography. In 1945 the Index Society began publishing a comprehensive continuation to the latter, the *Short-Title Catalogue of Books Printed in England, Scotland, Wales, and British America and of English Books Printed in Other Countries*, compiled by Donald Godard Wing, which will list nearly ninety thousand seventeenth-century imprints found in American, British, and certain European libraries. The net result of these and other studies has been to show us that we in the United States are richer in research material than we had thought. Speaking of the increasing value of union surveys, interlibrary loans, and photoreproduction for bringing texts into the hands of students in this country, Dr. Bishop remarked:

If carried out fully, these plans mean the end of the comparative isolation of scholars and of their dependence on but meager library facilities. They are our answer to the problems of distance both from Great Britain and from centers of study in our own vast continent. . . . they are evidently the dawn of a new day in research.⁶

In recent years libraries have developed introspective techniques of appraising their individual and collective resources, as a means of guiding research to the strongest collections in any subject field, uncovering material which might be overlooked, clarifying policies of individual specialization, and develop-

ing more co-ordinated acquisition plans. The American Library Association Board on Resources of American Libraries has published several useful cross-section surveys of collections and tools. These include *Union Catalogs in the United States* (Chicago, 1942) and periodic reports on notable additions to library collections. For particular regions it has issued such analyses as *Resources of New York City Libraries* (Chicago, 1942), and it is working on a supplement to *Resources of Southern Libraries* (Chicago, 1938). The Pacific Northwest Bibliographical Center, organized in 1940, authorized an immediate survey for the purpose of mobilizing regional book resources for the national emergency; this was published as *Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries* (Seattle, 1943). The Bibliographical Planning Committee of Philadelphia and several other groups—such as the Missouri Library Association—have made similar analyses of their areas. Los Angeles and northern Texas are among the most recently developed regions of study. Among publications of this nature which derived specifically from the war effort were *Guide to Library Facilities for National Defense* (Chicago, 1941), issued by the Joint Committee on Library Research Facilities for National Emergency, and the invaluable *Special Library Resources* (New York, 1941-47), sponsored by the Special Libraries Association.

INCREASE IN REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

While close-knit library co-operation has been talked about so much that it is almost in a class with the weather, there are signs that something is at last being done about it. Growth of regional union catalogs, accompanied by mutual interchange of knowledge about resources and

⁶ William Warner Bishop (comp.), *A Checklist of American Copies of "Short-Title Catalogue" Books* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1944), pp. x-xi.

continuous co-operation through the interlibrary loan system, is a hopeful indication of the relinquishment of rugged individualism in libraries situated close to one another. Bibliographical centers like those which have grown up within recent years at Denver, Philadelphia, and Seattle, have done much to bring together book collections in a positive way. National organizations like the American Library Association, the Special Libraries Association, and the Association of Research Libraries have lent their influence in the interests of greater co-operation. Formation of the Association of College and Reference Libraries in 1938, and the launching of its journal, *College and Reference Libraries*, in 1939, have turned special attention upon homogeneous institutions possessing common needs and common professional interests. Card preparation and distribution services of the Library of Congress are supported in part by co-operative cataloging contributions from several hundred libraries, and the national Union Catalog represents the collective effort of many. Co-operation in storage of little-used books has begun with the establishment of the New England Deposit Library; colleges in the Connecticut Valley have been considering the possibility of merging reference collections in a central location for common use; and several libraries in the South have gone so far as to consolidate their entire resources physically in one building. Finally, co-operative purchasing of materials by the larger research libraries has gained considerable impetus in the war years.

Co-operative arrangements on a regional basis offer libraries an opportunity to specialize in fields in which they are interested, with the assurance that purchases they make will not be wastefully duplicated and, at the same time, that

other interests of their readers may be satisfied in the vicinity. A classic case is that of the John Crerar Library and the Newberry Library in Chicago, which have divided responsibilities by mutual consent since the beginning of this century, the former collecting in the natural and social sciences, the latter chiefly in the humanities. In Washington, the Library of Congress, the Army Medical Library, and the Department of Agriculture Library have had long-standing agreements on division of responsibility for acquisitions in fields where they overlap. In 1944 the Library of Congress and the National Gallery of Art integrated their book-buying policies in similar fashion, clearly defining how each would function in maintaining collections of printed matter. Personnel from the National Gallery help strengthen the Library of Congress' reference resources in the arts in return for loan and bibliographical services. The same type of arrangement now exists between the Library of Congress and the United States Office of Education. The Carnegie Institution of Washington, the National Academy of Sciences, and the Pan-American Union Library have achieved a measure of co-ordination in book-purchasing. In several states—Oregon and Maine, for example—buying policies of the larger research libraries are regularly correlated.

College and university libraries in some areas, particularly in the South, have been showing signs of drawing together more closely. Limitations on individual budgets during depression and wartime, loss of qualified personnel to the armed forces or government work, and the need to increase their range of holdings to support advanced research have been among the causes. Moreover, as the American Council on Education pointed out in

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1938 in its *Studies on Co-operation and Co-ordination in Higher Education*, a great many higher institutions of learning in America are clustered together in somewhat haphazard fashion, creating rather illogical regional duplication of curriculums, research activities, and accumulation of library materials. Areal co-ordination of activities and resources has been urged as a means of broadening the range of academic institutions and offering greater facilities for graduate study. In Georgia the libraries of Atlanta University, Morehouse College, and Spellman College have been combined; and Emory University, Agnes Scott College, and the Georgia School of Technology have embarked on a co-operative library program. In New Orleans, Tulane University Library and the Howard Memorial Library share a single building, enjoying close working relationships and correlating their purchasing policies with Louisiana State University. Duke University Library and the University of North Carolina Library, which have operated in friendly liaison for more than a decade, have been acquiring what they need in certain fields with the understanding that there be no duplication of purchases and that each acquisition be a desirable addition to the basic resources of both. This program was enhanced in 1940 by a Rockefeller Foundation grant, shared by Tulane University Library, enabling the three institutions to purchase Latin-American material in quantity; accordingly, each has agreed to be responsible for procuring books and serials from certain assigned countries, retaining, at the same time, a right to roam farther afield if it wishes to add to subjects in which it has particularly strong collections. In Nashville, Tennessee, institutional co-operation has reached an advanced stage

of development. Vanderbilt University, the George Peabody College, and Scarritt College have co-ordinated their curriculums to eliminate duplication of courses and have merged their book resources in the Joint University Libraries, dedicated in December, 1941, occupying a specially erected building at the intersecting point of the three campuses.

A single instance of how such arrangements work to the advantage of research may be cited. In 1944 S. H. Thomson reported having checked the country's principal libraries for four hundred monographs which had been selected by specialists as "indispensable" for medieval and Renaissance studies. While not so well stocked as the million-volume institutions, Duke University and the University of North Carolina were found to have 219 and 210 titles, respectively; and, since 50 of these were not duplicated, a scholar studying at either institution could have ready access to a total of 269.⁷

PLANS FOR NATIONAL CO-OPERATION

At the present time, co-operative acquisition by research libraries on a national scale is coming into the picture. The loss of access to foreign sources upon which we had formerly been dependent, and the gaps disclosed by the wartime canvass of library resources, have brought about an increased recognition of the need for insuring that in the future at least one copy of every publication in the slightest degree useful for research will be accessible inside this country, whether in original form or photographically copied. This objective had been discussed at a meeting of the Joint Committee on

⁷ "Monographic Holdings of American Libraries in the Medieval and Renaissance Fields," in *Progress of Medieval and Renaissance Studies in the United States and Canada*, Bull. 18 (June, 1944), 28-52.

Materials for Research of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council in December, 1939. Later it formed one of the proposals submitted for general consideration by an Experimental Division of Library Co-operation which operated for one year (1941-42) at the Library of Congress, under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. It came up for further discussion at a meeting of members of the Association of Research Libraries in 1942, which resulted in the creation of a committee to investigate means of carrying it out.

The most promising plan thus far put forth is the so-called "Farmington Proposal," formulated at the close of 1942 by a council of distinguished scholars and librarians who had been appointed to advise the Librarian of Congress. It was widely promulgated over the signatures of Keyes D. Metcalf and Julian P. Boyd, directors, respectively, of the Harvard and Princeton university libraries, and Archibald MacLeish, then Librarian of Congress. Briefly, it suggested that each of the large libraries henceforth undertake a positive responsibility to purchase on a world-wide scale in one or several assigned fields. At the same time, if they chose, they would be at complete liberty to purchase according to their particular needs in fields not earmarked to them for specialization. Essentially, this would mean that without sacrificing their own individuality or interests libraries would be undertaking specific purchases which, when totaled up, would insure complete future coverage for the United States of everything of any value published abroad. Since interlibrary loans and photoduplication methods make it a simple matter for any institution to draw upon what any other acquires, the Farmington Proposal advocates prompt cataloging of

newly received material—preferably by centralized or co-operative means—and speedy filing of entries in the Union Catalog at the Library of Congress. Subject union catalogs might also be established through co-operative bibliographical work at some time in the future.⁸

The Farmington Proposal was generally approved by learned societies, research libraries, and universities, but attempts to obtain funds for the preliminary work of interlibrary organization were unsuccessful. Consequently, a number of members of the Association of Research Libraries adopted a plan suggested by Mr. Metcalf in March, 1944. Each undertook to survey a typical year's book output of one foreign country. Lists of titles in more than a hundred subject fields were also checked against library holdings to gauge how thoroughly foreign production has been covered by research institutions acting independently. An analysis of the initial surveys⁹ indicates that coverage could be considerably improved for the nation as a whole, and that the cost of dividing responsibilities for acquisitions might not be excessive compared with what libraries individually have been spending abroad in normal times.

The Farmington Proposal has not yet matured into a firmly adopted program; of recent creation, it has not had a chance to operate under conditions of relative normality. Sudden collapse of the Axis has required us to adopt interim measures with the hope that long-range plans can in time be put into effect. But the principle of sharing specialization re-

⁸ Fremont Rider's recent suggestion for co-operative production of microprint cards (*supra*, chap. vii), furnishes another possible approach to cataloging and disseminating acquisitions.

⁹ Edwin E. Williams, "Research Library Acquisitions from Eight Countries," *Library Quarterly*, XV (October, 1945), 313-23.

sponsibilities is operating to some extent in several joint projects now under way.

POSTWAR UNDERTAKINGS

Since 1943 diplomatic and consular officers abroad have been reporting regularly to the Department of State on the availability of printed materials in their territories. Frequently they have helped supply the needs of federal libraries. Recently the State Department appointed a number of publication procurement officers who have traveled to Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy, and other countries on full-time book-gathering missions. As a necessary basis for this program, the Library of Congress has been asked to take the lead in co-ordinating acquisitions for the government libraries so as to eliminate unnecessary duplication and serve the best national interest.

Wartime publications from Germany and central Europe are beginning to arrive in considerable quantity. In the summer of 1945 the Library of Congress arranged to order three extra copies of anything its agents could obtain so that other American libraries might share them. Agreements later were reached with the Military Intelligence Section of the War Department to let our research libraries share huge quantities of printed matter which had been condemned for destruction under the denazification program. A mission of librarians has been sent to Germany to make the necessary arrangements and to search out new sources of acquisition. Distribution of the material procured through this rapidly expanding project will be on a nationwide basis, with due regard to specializations. A committee composed of delegates from the principal library groups and educational and research associations has attacked the problem of assign-

ing over five thousand distinct priorities in 254 categories of material among more than a hundred libraries. Its criteria pay due regard to the strength of each institution's holdings; rotation of highest priorities regionally among the East, Middle West, West, and South, and among different institutions in the same region; and assignment of highest priorities to those libraries expressing a willingness to take all the material in any given category.

Slavica have come into particular prominence during the war period. In 1943 the Rockefeller Foundation made a grant to the Library of Congress for the purpose of surveying American holdings in this highly important field. A group of scholars headed by Professor Michael Karpovich of Harvard prepared fourteen checklists of basic Russian books in history, literature, philosophy, religion, art, economics, geography, and other subjects. These were then circulated to research libraries for checking and amplification. The consolidated results (which are now being published) furnish a union list of standard Russian books in this country, coupled with a measurement of comparative strength and weakness in important collections. A further grant by the Rockefeller Foundation in 1944 has enabled the Library of Congress to undertake preliminary cataloging of its rich Slavica, supplementing these bibliographical activities. In June, 1945, representatives of a number of libraries conferred and agreed to devote part of their appropriations to co-ordinated purchasing of Slavic materials abroad. By the end of the year, however, the way had not yet been opened for regular acquisition in any considerable quantity.

Most urgent items on our present agenda are the strengthening of friendly ties with the other libraries of the world

and rehabilitation of those devastated by the war. The expanding cultural programs of the Department of State and the formation of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization offer new opportunities for constructive action. Preparations for resumption of international library relations have been going on steadily throughout the war. Sets of Library of Congress cards printed since 1939 have been stored here for foreign depositories, as have federal documents which normally would have gone abroad. The Rockefeller Foundation purchased fifty copies of the *Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards* for post-war distribution; and, by a further grant of \$100,000, it enabled the American Library Association to buy thousands of books and scholarly journals representing recent research in this country in the humanities, social sciences, and other fields. These are being shipped overseas

as restored communications permit. The American Book Center, a voluntary independent organization, has been collecting wholesale donations of volumes to help restock libraries in Poland, Finland, the Philippine Commonwealth, and other war-shattered countries. In co-operation with the Department of State, a program involving the exchange of books and librarians with China has been set under way by the American Library Association.

The end of the war has brought no slackening in the activities of our libraries; those in colleges and universities particularly have begun to feel the effects of the return of our young men from the services. Academic research is increasing in volume; government research is bent on the vast problems of constructing the peace. Let us hope that, instead of laying open its libraries to destruction, the world will now come to accept the knowledge and wisdom they have to offer.

ARCHIVES IN THE UNITED STATES DURING WORLD WAR II, 1939-45*

PHILIP C. BROOKS

LIKE jugglers with too few hands, archivists¹ in the United States during the war had to work simultaneously on three major tasks, all vital to the use of archives as materials for research. The first task, in logical order, the selection and assembling of valuable records in archival institutions, was accomplished on a greatly increased scale in the field of government records because of the accelerated production of records and the press of administrative needs. While records also multiplied in business, church, and other nongovernmental archives, administrative needs did not immediately cause so great an acceleration of archival work. Preservation of records was the second task. Preparations were made for protection against war hazards, but no real test came. Meanwhile technical measures of preservation developed rapidly. The third task, that of providing information from records, involved a change in emphasis from service to scholarship to service to government and to the war needs of the public. While facilities for the usual issuance of finding mediums

were limited, war needs stimulated significant steps in the control and utilization of archives.

Entertaining the possibility that the United States might be drawn into the war, Dr. Waldo G. Leland, in his presidential address before the Society of American Archivists, in November, 1940, pointed out some of the respects in which archivists were ill-prepared for duties which would be brought on in the event of war.² The body of principles and methods of archival administration in this country was not well organized. Archives were not generally as well arranged or provided with finding mediums as they should have been, to serve the needs of administration or research. During the days that followed, leadership came from a few established institutions such as the state archives of Illinois, North Carolina, Maryland, and Mississippi; university organizations, exemplified by the University of Virginia and Princeton University libraries, and the Michigan Historical Collections; business historical organizations such as the Business Historical Society and the McCormick Historical Association; and church archives, of which those sponsored by Catholic, Presbyterian, and Quaker bodies were outstanding.

Because of their national scope, two relatively new organizations, the National Archives and the Society of American Archivists took the lead. The former, established in 1934, had developed a

*"The Archivist in Times of Emergency," *American Archivist*, IV (January, 1941), 1-12.

* This article was prepared at the request of the American Council of Learned Societies.

¹ In order to limit the field of this article to a logical and manageable scope, the term "archivists" is applied rather strictly to administrators of bodies of records maintained in their archival integrity, chiefly by institutions devoting their major attention to that work. The role of historical societies and libraries in preserving records, often with due care to their archival integrity, continued to be of inestimable value to scholarship. Several of them have made real contributions to archival economy, but only a few can be mentioned in this article.

functioning organization but had by no means solved its substantive problems. Its size, the overwhelming volume and complexity of records of the government at war, and the urgent demands of government for information from records posed an almost staggering challenge. The Society, established in 1936, had built up a fairly stable membership, had put a quarterly journal underway, and its meetings were the accepted professional gathering place of archivists.

Of the urgent tasks stressed in Dr. Leland's address, archivists gave first attention to the protection of their holdings. In January, 1941, the Society formed special committees on the protection of archives against the hazards of war, with R. D. W. Connor as chairman, and on the emergency storage of archives, headed by Collas G. Harris. Archivists were also represented on the Committee on Conservation of Cultural Resources, a quasi-governmental body representing federal agencies and professional associations, the work of which was carried on chiefly by its secretary, Dan Lacy. These committees by conferences and correspondence mobilized available knowledge and submitted recommendations for protective measures to the National Archives, the Historical Records Survey (a federal organization employing relief labor, established in the pre-war depression), the Public Buildings Administration, and other official agencies. Out of these activities came a "Bulletin" of the National Archives, *The Care of Records in a National Emergency*,³ which was later distributed in an edition of ten thousand copies by the Committee on Conservation of Cultural Resources. That committee issued a handbook, *The Protection of Cultural Resources against*

Hazards of War,⁴ which included guidance to archivists as well as to others. Taking European experience into account, these studies emphasized protection against bombing, although care in transfer and storage and protection against other hazards were fully treated.

Archivists looked to their fire protection systems, guards against theft and the like; but the most important physical step undertaken was to move the most valuable records to safe places. The Committee on Conservation of Cultural Resources, aided by close co-operation from the Historical Records Survey, surveyed possible safe storage buildings. The committee considered the frequently suggested use of natural caves but did not actually employ this device. The most valuable records in the National Archives were moved to interior portions of the building. Nitrate film was moved out of the city to storage at an army post. Apparently, no strictly archival agencies in the country actually moved records out of the cities in which they were located.

Permanent benefit has resulted from much of this work, as safety measures required analyses to determine which records most needed protection. The best classifications of state and county archives in relation to protective measures were presented by Margaret C. Norton, Archivist of Illinois, in her articles, "Establishing Priorities for State Records"⁵ and *County Records and the War*.⁶ A similar purpose in Baltimore induced an already long-overdue analysis and segregation of city archives.

The waste-paper hazard was nothing

⁴ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. 46.

⁵ *American Archivist*, V (January, 1942), 18-28.

⁶ Springfield: Illinois State Library, 1942. Pp. 5 (processed). Partly reproduced in *American Archivist*, V (October, 1942), 274-77.

³ Washington, December, 1941. Pp. 36.

like as great in this country as in Europe, but measures were taken against it. The chairman of the Committee on Conservation of Cultural Resources and the Archivist of the United States issued a joint appeal in 1941 against the sale of valuable records as waste paper, but it appeared that the danger had then really not developed. The New York State Division of Archives and History issued similar appeals locally at various times. In 1945, when the need appeared more pressing, the Society of American Archivists induced the War Production Board to order its state directors to attempt to protect valuable records in the waste-paper campaign it was then conducting. Comparatively small quantities of old records of families and business firms were probably sold, but the loss is believed to have been minor.

The desire to protect records stimulated photographic undertakings by increasing the demand for security copies. Programs for microfilming or photostating county records in Illinois, Maryland, Virginia, and Delaware, while either planned or underway already for other reasons, were speeded up by war-security needs. An even more direct war project was the microfilming of public records not yet transferred to archival agencies, as in Boston and in Tacoma and Everett, Washington.

A third special committee of the Society grew out of Dr. Leland's prediction that information in archives would be vitally needed in war work. The committee on the history and organization of government emergency agencies, headed by Dr. Solon J. Buck, entered a field of immediate importance. With staff assistance from the National Archives the committee surveyed the existing literature on its subject and urged upon that agency the need for a guide to

the records of previous federal war experience. This led to the preparation by the National Archives of its *Handbook of Federal World War Agencies and Their Records, 1917-1921*,⁷ a task made difficult after such a long lapse of time by the scarcity of information available. The study was, however, a significant step in the development of administrative history as well as a guide to research materials. All too few bodies of records were found in archival custody and well arranged for use. The same circumstances existed in the states, where efforts to learn from World War I experience showed that often data on organization and operations of vital functions were not preserved, while nonessential materials had accumulated and had never been eliminated.⁸

Countless uses proved the utility of archives in war. The proportion of emphasis required for current administrative and legal purposes so increased in relation to the emphasis given the usual kinds of private research that all archivists were affected. In most agencies limited facilities curtailed reference service for studies unrelated to the war effort, but the inquiries for war purposes increased the reference service load more than current accessions alone would have done. Services by the National Archives rose from 90,000 a year in 1940 to 321,000 in 1943.

War administrators asked first for information on organization and procedure of emergency agencies and, at later stages, for information on specific problems, such as production control of critical raw materials. These demands and their effect on the National Archives

⁷ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. 666.

⁸ Margaret C. Norton, "Record Making," *Illinois Libraries*, XXVII (February, 1945), 127-33.

were described in Edward G. Campbell's article, "Old Records in a New War."⁹ They included not only calls by organizations concerned with housing, war information, food, and industrial control, for records of their World War I prototypes, but also many calls for data from more recent bodies such as the National Recovery Administration. Most spectacular among war reference services were those that directly supported military and naval operations. Such, for example, was the provision of maps and photographs from consular trade reports that illustrated bombing targets in enemy territory.

For these war uses special kinds of finding mediums had to be developed by the National Archives, one of the earliest being *Materials in the National Recovery Administration Files of Interest to the Office of Production Management and Other Defense Agencies*.¹⁰ A series of "Reference Information Circulars" began to be issued in processed form by the National Archives in 1942, their use restricted in war time to federal officials. The first few dealt with the Philippines, France, Alaska, and other areas in the focus of military activity. Later they varied in content to meet the changing needs, as is shown by the appearance of Guy Lee's compilation on *Material in the National Archives Relating to the Disposition of Surplus Property Following the First World War*.¹¹

Not all wartime reference services were to government agencies. Loyalty requirements meant that workers hired by war industries had to prove their citizenship, and this despite an estimate

that sixty million Americans did not have the evidence to do so.¹² Census, immigration, and other types of records that might provide missing vital data came into pressing demand in state and local archives and records offices as well as in Washington. In order to aid officials in answering these needs, the Historical Records Survey, under the direction of Sargent B. Child, prepared a series of guides to vital statistics in public offices and in church records. Some were published, but more were distributed among public officials and industrial firms in mimeographed or typed form.

In addition to the provision of information from their holdings, archivists aided in morale building by preparing exhibits to arouse public enthusiasm and by giving information to local historians for similar purposes.¹³ Most archival agencies kept exhibit rooms open and put on special exhibits in connection with war finance bond drives. These culminated in 1945 when the German and Japanese surrender documents from the National Archives were sent around the country in an exhibition train sponsored by the United States Treasury Department.

Archival organizations and their staffs played a constructive role in aiding the preservation of currently created war records. The Society of American Archivists' committee on the collection and preservation of materials for the history of emergencies, headed by Herbert A. Kellar, of the McCormick Historical Association—the fourth special committee induced by Dr. Leland's presidential address—participated in this

⁹ *American Archivist*, V (July, 1942), 156-68.

¹⁰ Washington: Office of Production Management, 1942. Pp. 162 (processed).

¹¹ "Reference Information Circular," No. 27 (Washington: National Archives, 1944). Pp. 13 (processed).

¹² For a discussion of the use of state records in this connection see Norton, *op. cit.*, 127-28.

¹³ Sylvester K. Stevens, "Local History and Winning the War," *Bulletins of the American Association for State and Local History*, I (January, 1942), 27-50.

movement. The Society's committee on business archives issued a broadside to business firms in 1941 urging them to preserve records. And many archivists participated in the writing of current war histories.¹⁴ These activities have led to the formation of many special bodies of records that will become holdings of future archivists.

Archivists faced many problems in the administration of their own tasks. Most of them were new only in degree. Rather coincidentally, the National Archives was just crystallizing some of the lessons of its early experience; this came none too soon and still was by no means definite. All archival agencies faced the perennial problem of getting recognition from the authorities that provided their resources. Most of them came out of the war better off in this respect than before because special services showed their utility and because their aid was badly needed in caring for unprecedented masses of documentation.

In the field of selection from those masses and resultant disposal and accessioning, the interest of the archivist in the early phases of the life-history of records was more concretely recognized than before. Increasingly, archivists realized that their holdings were largely determined by the decisions of administrators as to what records to create, what forms and file classifications to use, and what records to segregate for retention and disposal.¹⁵ Thus the National Archives undertook a records administration program designed to achieve a closer relationship with the producers of records. This program included learning

the organization and functions of agencies, urging administrators to see that their activities were properly recorded, striving to get competent records officers appointed in all agencies, surveying records in the agencies, promoting sound records retirement programs, and taking part in a variety of interagency co-operative enterprises.¹⁶ Some states undertook similar programs, notably North Carolina, whose governor requested each state department to designate a member of its staff to serve as records administrator in co-operation with the Department of Archives and History. Activities of the Illinois State Archives in this field centered about training staffs of state departments in good records management. Such undertakings, viewed from the long range, will prove highly important in molding the body of research materials available to scholars studying these governments in the future.

Of the interagency co-operative enterprises undertaken in Washington the most important was the Interagency Records Administration Conference at Washington, sponsored by the Civil Service Commission as a phase of its training activities. This body had at its monthly meetings an average of one hundred records administrators, archivists, and other administrative officials. Through 1945 it produced for distribution more than twenty mimeographed transcripts of its proceedings, devoted to improved methods of records management.

Through these efforts to promote closer relations between the archival institutions and the producers of records,

¹⁴ Lester J. Cappon, *A Plan for the Collection and Preservation of World War II Records* (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1942). Pp. 24.

¹⁵ Philip C. Brooks, "The Selection of Records for Preservation," *American Archivist*, III (October, 1940), 221-34.

¹⁶ Robert H. Bahmer, Philip C. Brooks, Willard F. McCormick, and Harry Venneman, *Current Aspects of Records Administration* (Washington: National Archives, 1943). Pp. 19. Also National Archives, *Annual Reports, 1941-42*, pp. 3-9; *1942-43*, pp. 4-12; *1943-44*, pp. 6-16; *1944-45*, pp. 6-10.

in addition to wartime reference services, the role of an archives as an arm of government has been much more clearly evident than before in this country. Indeed, there were signs that, as Ernst Posner predicted in 1940, the archivists would gradually "become the nations' experts who must be consulted in all questions of public record making and record keeping and likewise become the trustees who will safeguard the written monuments of the past, of the present day, and of the future."¹⁷

In order to make their advice effective, archivists issued several publications to guide administrators in the segregation and disposal of records. Of these the most important was *How To Dispose of Records: A Manual for Federal Officers*.¹⁸ Several federal agencies issued manuals for their own staffs. Information on disposal of state records appeared in two articles by Miss Norton, "Disposal of Records" and "Reduction of Records,"¹⁹ and one by Christopher Crittenden, Archivist of North Carolina, and Nell Hines, "Disposal of Useless State Records."²⁰ These publications contained both procedural guides and advice on evaluation.

Evaluation became an increasingly great challenge to archivists. Whereas there was little need for planned disposal in the nineteenth century, the development of mechanical means of making and duplicating records and the expansion of governmental functions meant that from World War I on more records were created that did not have enduring value than those that did. In

the federal government, in business, and perhaps only in less degree in state and local governments, World War II brought new masses of records and many new types. It was estimated in Washington that three-fourths of the records currently created did not have enduring value. To identify and segregate them, therefore, was a major archival problem. The records administration activities mentioned above were designed to plan the fate of war records before the end of the conflict should bring their reckless destruction or unwarranted storage without segregation.

No comprehensive standards for evaluation appeared, and no categorical rules could be made on a subject that depended so greatly on judgment and a certain degree of speculation as to future use.²¹ In the extensive appraisal activities of the National Archives some fairly uniform practices were evident, however. Appraisers urged the retention of the main correspondence, directives, and organizational files of agency headquarters; files of policy-making officials; a few basic series of fiscal and personnel records; summaries of statistical and other analyses; main series of reports, case files involving legal rights or obligations of either the government or individuals; and often samples of large bodies of operational records that did not warrant complete preservation. Records disposed of most frequently were those pertaining to details of "housekeeping" activities; operational files involving thousands of persons but giving little information on each and representing no legal rights or

¹⁷ "Some Aspects of Archival Development since the French Revolution," *American Archivist*, III (July, 1940), 172.

¹⁸ Washington: National Archives, 1945. Pp. 50.

¹⁹ *Illinois Libraries*, XXVI (March and April, 1944), 120-24; 152-57.

²⁰ *American Archivist*, VII (July, 1944), 165-73.

²¹ For discussions of evaluation issued during the war see Brooks, "Selection," *supra*, fn. 15; also Elizabeth B. Drewry, Robert S. Ballentine, and Cyril Paquin, *The Evaluation of Records*, a panel discussion of the Interagency Records Administration Conference (Washington: U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1945). Pp. 14 (processed).

obligations; field records; and duplicates in general. No one of those categories could be eliminated en masse, but the chaff was most likely to be found among them. State and local archivists followed much the same trends as far as government records were concerned. Among records of private organizations and persons, those that showed the participation of the individual citizen in the war effort were most prized. Business firms, as normally, laid stress upon records of technical development, fiscal matters, and legal obligations.

Archivists were inclined to favor centralization of the materials they decided to preserve. Federal records tended to become centralized because the creating agencies initially brought their most valuable records to Washington, as it was difficult to identify series that had exclusively local value, and too few field records warranted enduring preservation to justify establishment of regional archives.²² Some large agencies, notably the War and Navy departments, temporarily solved their field records problems by establishing depositories in which records could be held for a few years and analyzed for subsequent disposal or transfer to the National Archives.

State archivists came to no unanimous decision on the perennial problem of centralization, but microphotography in some cases offered a solution. Illinois authorities felt that county records

should be kept where they originated largely because of local legal needs, but they provided security by a microfilming program. North Carolina followed the same line, as did Virginia. Maryland, on the other hand, leaned toward centralization, and legislation was adopted requiring transfer of county records antedating 1788 to the state Hall of Records.

Whatever records were kept, and wherever, their physical preservation became an even more than usually important subject when the war focused attention on hazards to them. The war ended the work of the Historical Records Survey and the Survey of Federal Archives of putting into shape many disordered bodies of local and state government and federal field records. In many institutions personnel was so restricted that little more could be done than to maintain the status quo in condition of records. But the emergency saw several important technical developments in methods of preservation and repair. One of the most useful for moderate-sized institutions was that introduced at the Virginia State Library—a laminating process, using cellulose-acetate foil on rollers instead of a flat bed press, that was less costly and bulky than the operation required by the larger-scale activities of the National Archives. New processes revealed at the National Archives included an improved method of mounting maps and a flexible lacquer to protect them; a means of physically transferring print from old paper to new; and ways of transforming early motion pictures or contact-paper prints from them into pictures that can be projected on modern machines. A major change in the preservation of records at the National Archives was from heavy and expensive steel equipment to light, inexpensive, and more adaptable cardboard contain-

²² For discussions of field records and centralization, see Oliver W. Holmes, William D. McCain, Jesse S. Douglas, and Richard B. Morris, "The Problem of Federal Field Office Records," *American Archivist*, VI (April, 1943), 81-122; An "Announcement" of the Illinois State Library, *American Archivist*, V (October, 1942), 272-77; and *Disposition of Records in the Field Service*, a panel discussion of the Interagency Records Administration Conference (Washington: U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1944). Pp. 10 (processed).

ers. The whole subject was treated in a pamphlet by Adelaide E. Minogue, *The Repair and Preservation of Records*.²³

Arrangement of records continued to be a matter of vital interest for archivists, most of whom hewed to the line of respect *pour les fonds*. A significant exchange of views was instigated by a librarian's proposal that records in an archives be arranged according to their subject content (Randolph W. Church, "The Relationship between Archival Agencies and Libraries").²⁴ A rejoinder by an archivist stressed the need for strict archival arrangement because of the significance of archival groups as integrated units and because of continued reference to records by the agencies that transferred them and knew their original filing schemes (Herman Kahn, "Libraries and Archivists—Some Aspects of their Partnership").²⁵ Because a substantial portion of the valuable records in this country are preserved in quasi-archival agencies, historical societies, and libraries, this problem continued to be always in focus.²⁶

Faced by a problem of establishing fixed archival units in view of constantly changing federal agencies, the National Archives carried through its concept of arrangement by dividing its holdings into some two hundred defined "record groups." Each consisted of the records of a medium-sized federal agency, a major subdivision of a large one, or a number of small ones, depending upon the significance of related functions represented

and upon a convenient size for handling. These record groups guide both physical arrangement and the preparation of tools for use of the records.

The same plan involved the closely related matter of finding mediums, and the successive kinds to be produced were described by Philip M. Hamer in "Finding Mediums in the National Archives: An Appraisal of Six Years' Experience."²⁷ First in the series, all of which came under Dr. Hamer's supervision, is the "registration of record group" document, a one-page identification giving such data as title, dates, quantity, and records transferred, and an indication of parts of the record group not yet in archival custody. The next step is a "preliminary checklist," describing in convenient preliminary order, usually by series, the records in all or a part of a record group. "Preliminary inventories" then will provide administrative histories of the agencies concerned and assemble the information available in checklists or other existing finding mediums. All these documents are intended to provide, soon after the accessioning of records, information necessary to the staff, to other federal agencies, and to searchers from outside. They will be followed by more complete and analytical "final inventories." The program extended during the war to the preparation of "preliminary checklists" for most of the record groups and publication of five "preliminary inventories."

In addition to this regular series, the National Archives developed certain finding mediums for the purpose of meeting immediate needs, with the result that five "Special Lists" and thirty-three "Reference Information Circulars" were published, having to do with areas,

²³ "Bulletins of the National Archives," No. 5 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945). Pp. 56.

²⁴ *American Archivist*, VI (July, 1943), 145-50.

²⁵ *Ibid.* VII (October, 1944), 243-51.

²⁶ See also Margaret C. Norton, "Archives and Historical Manuscripts," *Illinois Libraries*, XXV (December, 1943), 399-402.

²⁷ *American Archivist*, V (April, 1942), 82-92.

agencies, or functions on which data were needed in current war activities. Some have been cited earlier in this report.

While catalogs and calendars were beyond the available resources of most archival agencies during the war, several of these aids to research did appear. Notable among them were the Maryland Hall of Records' *Catalogue of Archival Material* and its exemplary *Calendar of Maryland State Papers*, No. 1: *The Black Books*.²⁸

In making records available for the use of searchers, archivists met problems of restrictions as always, but increasingly so on account of military and political security. In smaller agencies throughout the country the most common restrictions upon use of records were those placed by families on the papers of their forebears. By and large, records of state and local governments were free of access. The Maryland Hall of Records, for example, was able to report in 1942 that all its materials were open to the public. Because it accessioned records extending to quite recent dates, and because some of the greatest record-producing federal agencies were directly engaged in carrying the war to the enemy, the National Archives encountered many files and single documents that were "classified" for reasons of security as "secret," "confidential," or "restricted." While there were good reasons for much of this classification, administrators agreed that military and civilian officials frequently "overclassified" documents. Removing classification is far more difficult than creating it, and archivists will have to strive in the future to persuade administrative agencies to declassify as much as possible. For the time being, while the majority of the records in the National

Archives are unrestricted, the searcher will find that some files are not open at all, and that special permission is required to see others.

One other development worthy of note is the use of microphotography. It is pertinent to mention that archivists used microphotography extensively in the states for duplication of county records; that in the federal government several experiments aimed at reduction of volume by microphotography and destruction of originals provided rather costly lessons showing that this method must be applied only after careful attention to the expense and suitability of the records for filming; and that the "file microcopy" program of the National Archives promised to be a highly significant means of duplicating and distributing important series for research use.

Training of students and employees in general archival principles and in the newer developments of policy and method was placed on a firm foundation in Washington, and several courses were given from time to time elsewhere. Several discussions in 1939 and 1940²⁹ laid out the desiderata of archival training and debated whether it should be given by historians or librarians. That archivists were declaring their independence of both was shown by the fact that the most substantial courses were sponsored or organized by archivists themselves. Increasingly, the need was felt for a well-rounded curriculum including archival principles and methods, administrative history of record-producing governments or other organizations, historical method and the auxiliary sciences of history, and,

²⁸ Samuel Flagg Bemis, "The Training of Archivists in the United States," *American Archivist*, II (July, 1939), 154-61; and Solon J. Buck, "The Training of American Archivists," *American Archivist*, IV (April, 1941), 84-90.

²⁹ Annapolis: Hall of Records, 1942. Pp. 161; Pp. 295.

as corollaries, some work in public administration and in other social studies.

Such a curriculum was organized at the American University in Washington, D.C., under the direction of Dr. Ernst Posner and with the co-operation of the National Archives. That university began with a graduate course in the history and administration of archives, under Dr. Posner and Dr. Buck, in 1939. Since that time there have been added graduate and undergraduate courses in the principles of record administration and in the management of government records by Helen L. Chatfield, record officer of the Bureau of the Budget, and related courses in comparative administrative history and other subjects. An undergraduate curriculum is now culminated by a Degree of Associate in Administration with a major in record administration. More than two hundred students had attended one or more of these classes by the end of the war.

In order to make these training facilities available to institutional archivists and manuscripts custodians, mostly from outside Washington, an intensive course in the preservation and administration of archives was inaugurated at the American University in 1945, with the co-operation of the National Archives and the Maryland Hall of Records. Fifteen persons, from church, university, business, state, and private archives, historical societies, and libraries spent three weeks in Washington and Annapolis, receiving instruction that included part-time internships at the National Archives.

Four programs were offered to archival or other government employees that amounted to in-service training. The National Archives in 1939-40 experimented with seminars in federal administrative history and in correspondence

and report writing, but after that year time could not be taken from pressing business for these enterprises. The Navy Department conducted a course in microphotography for its records office staff in 1945, which a number of National Archives employees attended as guests. In 1940 the Department of Agriculture Graduate School established a course in federal communications and records, later changed to records management and procedure, which gave practical guidance to representatives of many agencies. In 1945 the Archives Division of the Illinois State Library, co-operating with the Illinois State Civil Service Commission, sponsored a course on the creation of state records, given by Miss Norton, the State Archivist, with as many as sixty-five in attendance at the lectures.

Several universities gave courses concerning historical manuscripts, chiefly devoted to their use rather than to their care. Courses of importance for archivists were one on archival organization and practice given by Miss Norton at Columbia University in the summer of 1940 and one on the care and use of manuscripts, given by Howard Peckham in summer sessions since 1942 at the University of Michigan.

A number of foreign students and professional archivists have received American archival training in Washington and at some state centers, notably Illinois and Maryland, through the sponsorship of the Department of State, the American Library Association, and their own governments, particularly that of Brazil. Their training has been largely as interns, and their interests have been predominantly in repair and preservation and in the preparation of finding mediums for records in American institutions bearing on the histories of their own countries.

Establishment or extension of a few archival organizations was noted despite wartime restrictions. State archives and business firms provided the major examples. Florida set up an Archives Division in its state library in 1941; Colorado, in its State Historical Society, in 1943. Oregon's appropriation of funds for an archives division in its state library in 1945 stemmed directly from work of the state's World War II History Commission. New Mexico had a temporary committee that surveyed state records and put them in order, and hoped for a more permanent organization.

Business firms, prodded by management problems and stimulated by research organizations led by the Business Historical Society, took increased interest in the preservation of their archives. The Firestone Tire and Rubber Company, for example, began early in the war by employing William D. Overman, formerly of the Ohio State Archaeological and Historical Society, to analyze the papers of its founder, and by 1943 this work had expanded into an organized archival department for the whole firm. The Denver and Rio Grande Western Railroad in 1941 established an archives and records management program under Herbert O. Brayer, who was later appointed first Archivist of Colorado.³⁰ The Westinghouse Company opened a new archives building. An important commentary on business archives, as well as a useful account of work in the Pennsylvania Telephone Company, appeared in Carl H. MacKenzie's "An Experiment in the Retention and Preservation of Corporate Records."³¹ Mr. MacKenzie

stated that because business had not given serious attention to archival problems he had to turn to writings on public archives for methods and procedures. Several other firms, however, were understood to have provided care for their noncurrent records but had not made their activities known to professional archivists.

Among institutions of other types which made notable progress in dealing with their archives were the Catholic Diocese of New York, the Historical Foundation of the Presbyterian church, the universities of Michigan, North Carolina, and Tennessee, Princeton University, and several other educational institutions particularly interested in their role in the war effort. The Williamsburg, Virginia, restoration corporations designated as their first archivist Lester J. Cappon, the secretary of the Society of American Archivists.

Of interest to the American people on a much broader scale than most institutions in this field was the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library at Hyde Park, New York, established by the late President in 1940 to care for his personal archives as well as his books and museum pieces. The library was made an institution subordinate to the Archivist of the United States and under the immediate directorship of Fred W. Shipman. It was the nearest to a solution yet achieved of the difficult problem of caring for papers of a President, which, while to a large extent official, are necessarily intermingled with political and personal materials.³² In addition to papers of Mr. Roosevelt, the library acquired many representing his forebears and also those of several of his associates in the New Deal administra-

³⁰ Herbert O. Brayer, "I've Been Working on the Railroad," *American Archivist*, VII (April, 1944), 115-27.

³¹ Supplement to Business Historical Society Bulletin (Boston: Baker Library, February, 1943). Pp. 23.

³² R. D. W. Connor, "The Franklin D. Roosevelt Library," *American Archivist*, III (April, 1940), 81-92.

tion. It was expected that some parts of the library's holdings would be opened to research soon after the war.

Archival buildings were the center of keen attention in connection with the developments cited and with plans for new buildings. Public officials and particularly architects were made increasingly aware that archives require building specifications distinct from those of libraries and museums. Possibly the greatest emphasis was put upon economical storage space easy of access. The varied needs were set forth by Victor Gondos, Jr., an architect now on the National Archives staff, Louis Simon, who as supervising architect of the Treasury Department had an important role in the construction of the National Archives building, and William J. Van Schreeven, Archivist of Virginia, in *Buildings and Equipment for Archives*.³³

Since 1939 the archives of Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Virginia have moved into new buildings, all shared with state libraries, museums, or other state departments. Archival storage space was added to the Colorado State Historical Society. Plans were drawn for buildings in Michigan and New York, though funds were not appropriated for them. Pennsylvania appropriated money for a Penn Memorial building that would include a state archives. Many advanced features were put into the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library building. The National Archives, which had become a clearing house for information on this, as on many other kinds of advice to archivists, gave considerable thought to an inexpensive subsidiary building outside the city of Washington,

which might become part of a postwar building program.

The same high degree of activity of state archivists apparent in other fields was seen in an impressive body of legislation. The most common provisions had to do with the ever growing problem of mass of records. Means of expediting authorized disposal and preventing the loss of valuable records in that activity appeared in statutes adopted in at least sixteen states (Alabama, Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming). Legalization of microfilming, usually assuring acceptability of photographic copies as evidence in courts and thus allowing disposal of paper originals, was effected in nine states (Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Virginia, and Vermont). Several states (at least Alabama, Colorado, Florida, Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, and Wyoming) either established or improved modes of transferring records to central depositories. A Vermont law set up a Public Records Commission to survey the state's records and to plan an archival agency. The rather rare provision that the archival agency could recover state records which had been removed from official custody appeared in laws of Alabama, Colorado, and Wyoming.

Many of these state laws adopted some features of a model statute drawn up by a committee of the Society of American Archivists headed by A. R. Newsome, formerly the chief archival authority of North Carolina and the first president of the Society ("The Proposed Uniform State Public Records

³³ "Bulletins of the National Archives," No. 6 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945). Pp. 32.

Act").³⁴ This valuable document dealt with the definition of records; the basic responsibility of administrative officials to make and keep records of their actions; standards for paper, ink, and filing facilities; good order of records and easy access; legality, as evidence in courts, of photographic copies and of certifications made by archivists from records transferred to their custody; re-execution or re-recording of lost or destroyed records; disposal; state supervision of current records; and centralization of noncurrent ones.

That model presupposed the existence of a state archival agency. Subsequently the same committee drafted a statute for the establishment of a state archival-historical agency, believing this the most practicable type for most states, though recognizing that some states might need institutions with exclusively archival functions.³⁵ This draft stressed the creation of a nonpolitical board of trustees who should determine policy and choose the director.

Dr. Newsome's committee and the National Archives worked together closely, with the result that federal legislation and the model state laws, as well as numerous state enactments, showed many similarities. This was true of the most important federal law adopted in the period, the Disposal Act of 1943, which contained a definition of records similar in many ways to that of the Society's model act of 1940 and those adopted by some states.

The 1943 Act also made possible, for the first time in this country, disposal schedules having continuing effect, as

distinguished from lists by which Congress authorized the disposal only of specific records already accumulated. These schedules, which were used by most federal agencies within two years of the passage of the Act, could apply to hundreds of thousands of cubic feet of records being accumulated recurrently and would avoid constant repetitious reporting for disposal authorization. At the end of the war this provision was extended by an amendment enabling the Archivist of the United States to initiate general schedules applicable to records of types common to all federal agencies, which would represent chiefly "house-keeping" functions. Legality of approved photographic copies as evidence in courts was provided by legislation of 1940 and repeated in the Disposal Act of 1943. Subsequently the National Archives Council promulgated regulations controlling procedures under these enactments. A revision of the National Archives Council resolution on classes of records to be accessioned, which had the force of law, gave the Archivist authority to demand transfer of records more than fifty years old, or those of defunct agencies, unless they were certified to be needed for current business. The only other legal change affecting the National Archives was the establishment of a Trust Fund Board.³⁶

Accessions of archival agencies, of course, determine their whole character, and during the war they were numerous

³⁶ Disposal Act of July 7, 1943, as amended July 6, 1945 (44 U.S. Code, Suppl. 5, 366-80); National Archives Trust Fund Board Act (44 U.S. Code, 300aa-300jj); Regulations of the National Archives Council promulgated August 15, 1945 (National Archives, *Annual Report, 1944-45*, Appen. IV, p. 53); Resolution of the National Archives Council concerning the Transfer of Records Adopted November 9, 1944 (National Archives, *Annual Report, 1944-45*, p. 52).

³⁴ *American Archivist*, III (April, 1940), 107-15.

³⁵ "A Proposed Model Act To Create a State Department of Archives and History," *American Archivist*, VII (April, 1944), 130-33.

and varied, but it would be impossible to enumerate or even summarize them. While "News Notes" in the *American Archivist* cited many of them, it was still true, despite hopes of many archivists, that there was no union list of archives and historical manuscripts, including current accessions. The best sources of information on them are annual reports of the institutions.

Recent accessions of leading institutions showed a broadening concept of the research needs that can be served by archival materials. Archivists increasingly were taking on the bigger job of serving social and scientific studies in general in addition to the older service to more strictly defined kinds of "historical" research. From World War II, for example, records of value for sociological, statistical, economic, and technical studies will come to archival agencies on a broader scale than ever before. Thus the archivist's tasks grow in scope as well as in volume.

Accessions of most state and local agencies were not unusually large during the war because of personnel shortages and other circumstances. Some leading institutions did acquire valuable bodies of both Colonial and modern records, notably in Illinois, Maryland, and North Carolina. More significant in the long run will be the accumulation of future accessions for archival agencies in the activities of war history commissions.

In the field of accessions, as elsewhere, war needs of the federal government greatly accelerated the work of the National Archives. Its holdings more than trebled, from 200,000 cubic feet on June 30, 1939, to practically 690,000 on June 30, 1945. As a result of important accessions of older records during the war, usually moved to save space for emer-

gency offices, the National Archives had the bulk of records more than fifty years old from all but five major agencies. Most accessions, however, were of twentieth-century records. Their physical types grew more varied as increased amounts of still photographs, motion pictures, sound recordings, and the first accessions of microfilmed records came in. The great majority of War and Navy departments archives dated prior to 1939 were accessioned, and records of military and naval affairs amounted to about one-third of the total in the institution. Essentially all records of World War I emergency agencies were in, many of them accessioned during this war in some haste. The same was true of the emergency agencies of the depression period of the early thirties.

Many bodies of archives of nongovernmental organizations were assured of preservation by going to libraries and historical societies, so that the distinction between archival agencies and those institutions is frequently not clear cut. In the field of business, for example, organized files of many firms went to the Business Historical Society, and one significant transfer took a large portion of the records of the Burlington Railroad to the Newberry Library. Archives of families, firms, and other organizations (the American Historical Association, for an interesting example) went to the Library of Congress.

Through all these activities the Society of American Archivists served to encourage progressive developments and to facilitate exchange of information. Its membership, averaging about 260 individuals and 35 institutions, in addition to some 65 libraries that subscribed to its journal, increased slightly despite the loss of most of its foreign names.

Although transportation restrictions threatened to prevent them, no annual meetings were actually missed. The Society met from 1939 to 1945 in Annapolis, Maryland; Montgomery, Alabama; Hartford, Connecticut; Richmond, Virginia; Princeton, New Jersey; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; and Indianapolis, Indiana, successively, with attendances varying from seventy to one hundred. Those locations illustrate the fact that leadership in the Society's activities, as in archival development in general, came predominantly from the middle Atlantic, southern, and middle western regions.

The breadth of the Society's interests is seen in this article's numerous citations to the *American Archivist*. That publication was perhaps the only journal in the world strictly devoted to the administration of archives, rather than to their contents, which continued during the war. It appeared without interruption, under the editorship of Theodore C. Pease, of the University of Illinois. Its news notes and book-review sections were considerably expanded, but unfortunately its abstracts from foreign journals had to be discontinued for lack of material. A highly important addition was an annual bibliography of "Writings on Archives and Manuscripts," compiled by Karl L. Trever and Mary Jane Christopher, of the National Archives.³⁷

Dr. Leland was succeeded as president of the Society by Dr. Connor, Miss Norton, and Dr. Buck, in turn. Dr. Cappon became secretary on the resignation of Philip C. Brooks, of the National Archives, in 1942. A pleasant feature of Dr. Connor's administration was the election

of President Roosevelt as the Society's first honorary member, and his acknowledgment, which showed his real interest in archives and particularly in their duplication by microfilming. Other honorary members elected subsequently were Victor Hugo Paltsits, formerly of the New York Public Library; Joaquín Llaverías, Archivist of Cuba; Hilary Jenkinson, of the British Public Records Office; and Emilio Re, Archivist of Italy.

The most important personnel change in American institutions during the war was the resignation of Dr. Connor as Archivist of the United States in 1941 and the appointment of Dr. Buck as his successor. Sargent Child succeeded Luther H. Evans in 1940 as director of the Historical Records Survey, when Dr. Evans went to the Library of Congress. Dan Lacy, assistant director of the Survey, moved to the National Archives shortly after that and in 1943 became its director of operations. Changes among top officials of other archival institutions were surprisingly few. Highly regrettable losses, however, were the deaths of Christopher B. Coleman, director of the Indiana Historical Bureau, who had been active in support of state archival development; George H. Ryden, Archivist of Delaware and professor at the University of Delaware; Alexander C. Flick, head of the Division of Archives and History of the New York State Department of Education; and Morgan P. Robinson, Archivist of Virginia. They were succeeded, respectively, by Howard Peckham, Leon deValinger, Jr., Albert B. Corey, and William J. Van Schreeven.

More than half the personnel of many archival agencies went into military service. Many of these and many civilian archivists who transferred from regular to emergency positions made numerous

³⁷ *American Archivist*, VI (October, 1943), 273-88; VII (October, 1944), 293-312; and VIII (October, 1945), 292-311.

contributions to the war effort which utilized their special qualifications. One category of these was a group of National Archives staff members who headed the progressive efforts to control the vast current records accumulations of the War and Navy departments. Lieutenant Commander Emmett J. Leahy, Dr. Robert H. Bahmer, and Commander Herbert E. Angel led a group into the Navy Department; and Lieutenant Colonel Wayne C. Grover, Lieutenant Colonel Jesse S. Douglas, Sherrod E. East, and, later, Dr. Bahmer organized an even larger program in the War Department. Major Hugh Flick, of the New York State Division of Archives and History, joined the latter group. The results of their work will be long apparent both in their development of methods and in the actual archives that grow out of their activities.

A second category of special war service lay in the participation of Americans in the protection and rehabilitation of archives in war areas. A paper read by Dr. Posner stimulated interest at Washington that reached discussion by the President with his cabinet.³⁸ The American Council of Learned Societies established a Committee on the Protection of Cultural Treasures in War Areas, for which Dr. Posner prepared information on archival repositories in the European war areas, using facilities provided by the National Archives. This information was subsequently supplied by the National Archives directly to military authorities, as was other archival information to the State Department and the Office of Strategic Services. Mr. Fred W. Ship-

man, director of the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, went to Europe twice in 1944 as adviser to a subcommission of the Allied Control Commission for Italy and to the Supreme Headquarters of the Allied Expeditionary Forces. Captain William D. McCain, Archivist of Mississippi, served as military archival adviser to the same subcommission of the Allied Control Commission in Italy, and subsequent authorities, for more than a year.

In connection with Mr. Shipman's visit to the European Theater of Operations, Captain Asa Thornton, formerly of the National Archives, was assigned to the American First Army as archives officer; but a plan for designation of similar officers in the other American armies fell through. In March, 1945, Mr. Child was designated as archives adviser to the U.S. Group of the Control Council for Germany. He planned the establishment of repositories where German and other archives could be brought together and arrangements made for their restoration. Captain Lester K. Born, formerly of the Historical Records Survey, was put in charge of the German Ministerial Records Collecting Center, and other American archivists were expected to join Mr. Child for the postwar task. All these were designated on the recommendation of the National Archives, whose program throughout this activity was carried on by Oliver W. Holmes, program adviser to the Archivist.

In the Far East less extensive work could be done. Major Arthur E. Kimberly, of the National Archives, surveyed archives in the Philippines in June, 1945, and utilized his technical knowledge of repair and preservation to make recommendations for their protection. No definite plans relating to Japanese archives had matured before V-J Day.

³⁸ Oliver W. Holmes, "The National Archives and the Protection of Records in War Areas," *American Archivist*, IX (April, 1946), 110-27. This article summarizes the complex narrative of American co-operation in this field.

Many of the outstanding publications in the American archival field have been cited in this article. One should note, however, several important series and several single items not hitherto mentioned. Annual reports continued to be published by most governmental archives agencies and to be the best sources for information on their work. A significant special one was *The North Carolina Historical Commission; Forty Years of Public Service, 1903-1943*,³⁹ prepared under the direction of Dr. Crittenden. In the state field an outstanding series was Miss Norton's contribution, "Archives of Illinois," in the monthly *Illinois Libraries*.⁴⁰ Her articles dealt with wartime archival problems as well as with the holdings of the state archives, records administration in state agencies, county records, and with many constructive phases of archival economy. The first *Report 1943-1944* of the Vermont Public Records Commission⁴¹ included a memorandum on public records by Harold S. Burt, of the Connecticut State Library, and the report of a survey of Vermont state records by Henry Howard Eddy. Both of these were contributions to archival economy as well as competent treatments of the immediate problem.

Among publications of libraries having bodies of archives in their custody a leading series was the *Annual Report of the Archivist* (changed in 1941 to *Annual Report on the Historical Collections*) of the *University of Virginia Library*.⁴² These reports, particularly those from 1940 through 1942, included valuable discus-

sion of archival development throughout the nation.

Publication of inventories and guides by the Historical Records Survey was curtailed in 1942 on account of the war. By that time, however, the more than two thousand publications included well over six hundred archival inventories pertaining to counties, nearly two hundred to municipalities and towns, and about thirty to states.⁴³ The total also included nearly six hundred inventories of federal archives outside Washington, D.C., produced by the Survey of Federal Archives, which had been taken over by the Historical Records Survey. In addition to the published materials, many that did not reach publication were deposited in local historical agencies where they were available for study. The products of these surveys were highly important not only as guides to research materials but also as aids to public administration and as sources of valuable data on government at all levels.

The extensive publication program of the National Archives included the *Annual Reports*, "Bulletins," and certain of the finding mediums already mentioned. In addition, that agency initiated a series of "Records Administration Circulars," designed primarily for the guidance of its own staff and of other agencies of the government in planning records programs. They included papers on records management and retirement in the World War I Emergency Fleet Corporation and Fuel Administration, records

³⁹ "Publications" of the North Carolina Historical Commission, "Bulletin," No. 43 (Raleigh, 1942). Pp. 115.

⁴⁰ Springfield: Illinois State Library.

⁴¹ Montpelier: The Commission, 1944. Pp. 46.

⁴² Charlottesville: University of Virginia.

⁴³ Sargent B. Child, "What is Past is Prologue," *American Archivist*, V (October, 1942), 217-27; Sargent B. Child and Dorothy P. Holmes, *Checklist of Historical Records Survey Publications* (W.P.A. "Technical Series: Research and Records Bibliography," No. 7. [Washington: Federal Works Agency, Works Projects Administration, Revised, April, 1943]. Pp. 110.

administration in the National Recovery Administration, functions of records officers, current aspects of records administration in general, and the effect on archives of the war history projects. The agency's most important single publication during the period in review was its *Guide to Material in the National Archives*.⁴⁴ By the end of the war a complete revision was in the planning stage.

That American archivists continued their interest in their professional background is seen in the publication in 1940 of an English translation by Arthur H.

Leavitt of the *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives* by the Dutch archivists, Müller, Feith, and Fruin.⁴⁵

The surprisingly extensive literature on archival economy published during the war may be seen in the annual bibliography of "Writings" in the *American Archivist*, already cited. For publications appearing before July, 1942, one may refer to *Selected References on Phases of Archival Administration*, compiled by Dr. Buck and Dr. Posner.⁴⁶

⁴⁵ New York: H. W. Wilson, 1940. Pp. 225.

⁴⁶ Washington: National Archives, 1942. Pp. 27 (processed).

⁴⁴ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. xviii+303.

THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS ON THE ADEQUACY
AND EFFICIENCY OF REFERENCE SERVICE IN THE
LARGE AMERICAN PUBLIC LIBRARY¹

ROSE B. PHELPS

DURING the war years American public libraries have found it difficult enough to carry on their work with depleted staffs, without trying to expand their services. But during this period many have been planning a reorganization and modernization which they may soon be able to execute, and it is known that some public libraries are considering complete subject departmentation. In view of this fact, the present may be an opportune time to present the results of a study of the effects of central library organization on reference service which was completed in 1943, although the materials on which conclusions are based were largely collected in 1939 and 1940. Generally speaking, the decennial year 1940 may therefore be considered the date of this investigation.

"Subject departmentation" is a term generally used to describe a form of central library organization in which reference and circulation functions are united in each of several subject departments operating on the same organizational level. Each such department has its chief and a staff of professional and clerical assistants. The chiefs of these departments may be directly responsible to the director of the library, or they may be supervised by a subordinate administrator who reports to the director. Most libraries of this type still maintain a gen-

eral reference department for ready-reference and information service, although the bulk of their reference work is performed in the special subject departments. The clerical routine of charging and discharging books may be conducted either in a central lobby surrounded by the subject departments or by clerical assistants in the departments themselves.

The utility of this type of central library organization was first demonstrated by William Howard Brett in Cleveland during the period from 1913 to 1918.² In 1913, when the Cleveland Public Library moved into rented quarters in the Kinney and Levan building on Euclid Avenue, Mr. Brett divided his book stock into subject units which combined circulation and reference materials and thus established specialized reference divisions, all of which are functioning today.³ The only additions to their number

² This experiment was not without its forerunners. In the plan which William Frederick Poole proposed for the Newberry Library in 1881 (*The Construction of Library Buildings* [U.S. Bureau of Education, "Circulars of Information," No. 1.]) it was suggested that the book collection be housed in several separate subject rooms, but, since this was to be strictly a reference library, no combination of circulation and reference functions was involved. In the Providence Public Library, completed in 1900, three departments situated on the third floor, the Art, Music, and Industry departments, combined circulation and reference materials and service and were all originally supervised by a custodian of special libraries (Providence Public Library, *Twenty-third Annual Report*, Dec. 31, 1900, p. 6).

¹ A summary of a dissertation submitted to the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in December, 1943, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

³ Most of the information concerning the organization and service of the libraries considered in this paper has been taken from their annual reports.

have been the John G. White Library of Folklore and Orientalia and a Business Bureau. The development of subject departmentation in Los Angeles resembles that in Cleveland, but its evolution has been more gradual and much less definite and purposeful. However, it is the Los Angeles Public Library which has been adopted as the best example of this form of organization, partly because it is the only completely subject-departmentalized library in the United States, having abolished its general reference department in 1927.

The original study on which this paper is based may be described as a comparative case-study of three libraries, each representing one of the major types of public library organization found in the larger American cities. Its purpose was to discover which type of organization provides the most adequate and efficient reference service for the large American public library. To represent the functional type of organization, the St. Louis Public Library was selected; Los Angeles Public Library is the example of the subject-departmental type; a third type, referred to as the mixed type, which is particularly common in the eastern United States, is exemplified by the Boston Public Library.

Though this study deals largely with forms of internal organization of central libraries and with their capacity to produce an adequate reference service, it should not be assumed that the sociological differences in metropolitan communities which affect the use of library facilities have been totally ignored. The racial composition, educational achievement, and occupational interests of the population of a city undoubtedly influence its reading. Likewise, the city's standing as a financial, commercial, industrial, religious, and educational cen-

ter may vitally affect its use of reference facilities. A brief survey of these sociological factors in each of the three cities shows that they differ in many respects, and that, on the whole, Boston and Los Angeles probably furnish a somewhat better field for the development of library service than does St. Louis. However, an assumption with which this study was begun, that no public library, however successful, has as yet developed its reference service to the point where the potential demands of the public are fully supplied, still appears to be justified, and internal improvements in organization and better public relations may therefore be expected to produce increased use.

In order to simplify the presentation of this subject for the benefit of public library administrators and students of library administration, and to condense the contents of the study sufficiently for periodical publication, this report will begin with a brief description of the organization of each of the three central libraries; it will then proceed immediately to present the chief findings which deal with the use of reference facilities and the relative costs of service in each library. The more important conclusions of earlier chapters which investigated the effect of organization on the administration of central library service, on circulation and reference personnel, and on book collections are briefly summarized in a final section which seeks to explain the possible reasons for the greater adequacy and efficiency of the subject-departmentalized library.

ORGANIZATION

Los Angeles.—In 1940 the Adult Education Department of the Los Angeles Public Library (see Fig. 1) was the only wholly functional department exclusive-

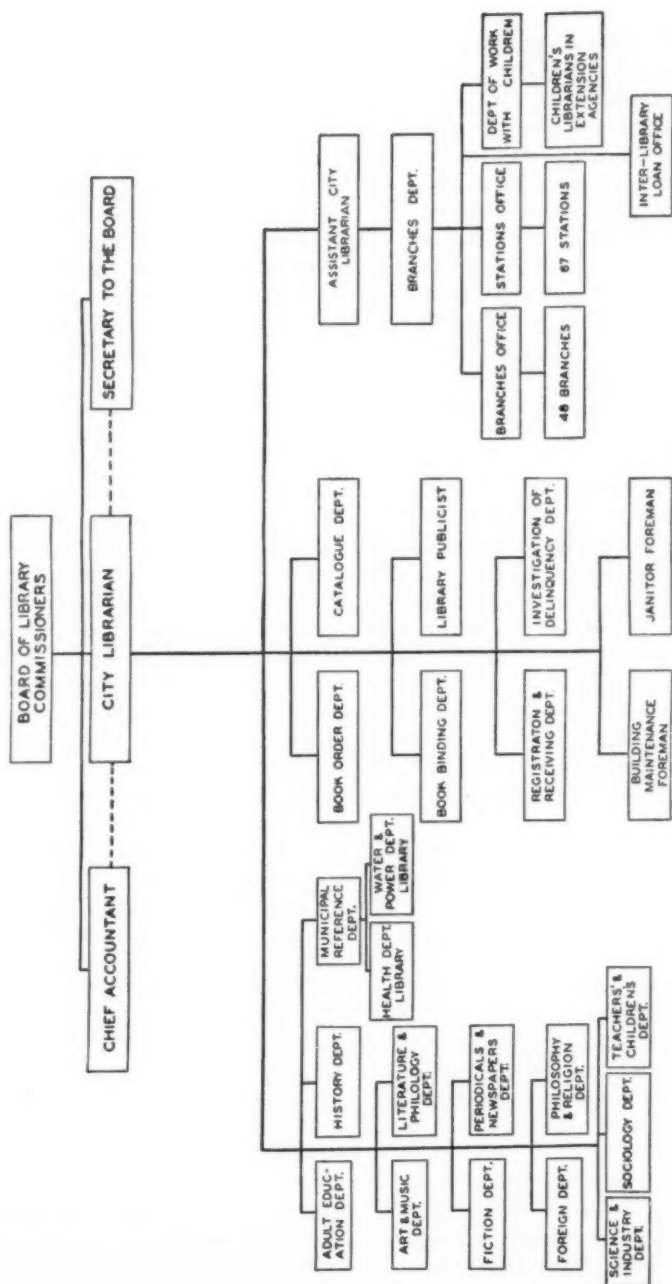


FIG. 1.—Organization of the Los Angeles Public Library, 1940

ly concerned with central library service to adults. In the case of the Fiction and Periodicals and Newspaper departments, departmentation was based on the type of materials serviced. The subject departments were Art and Music, Foreign (largely foreign literature), History, Literature and Philology, Philosophy and Religion, Science and Industry, Sociology, and the Teachers' section of the Teachers' and Children's Department. General reference books such as general encyclopedias, dictionaries, and bibliographies were kept in the Literature and Philology Department.

The Los Angeles Public Library had no supervisory officer charged with the co-ordination of the work of these central library departments, although an assistant librarian in charge of extension was appointed in 1940 to supervise the work of the branches. The imposing and beautiful Los Angeles building was planned for subject specialization but is not as well adapted to the requirements of this type of organization as the "open-plan" building of the Enoch Pratt Free Library at Baltimore, completed in 1932.

Boston.—The organization of the Reference Division of the Boston Public Library may be studied in Figure 2. In 1940 this division had two departments of a functional character, an "issue" and a general reference department called the Main Reading Room, which took the place of the former Bates Hall Reference Department and Bates Hall Center Desk. It likewise maintained two departments based on the type of material serviced, a Rare Book Department and a Periodical and Newspaper Department. Special subject departments were as follows: Fine Arts, History, Music, Statistical, Science and Technology, and Teachers'. The Statistical Department was chiefly

concerned with economic and government publications. The special collections of the Rare Book Department were highly useful in the library's reference work, being especially rich in the fields of early American, English, and European literature and in early American history. The well-stocked Business Branch occupies the Kirstein Memorial Building in the center of Boston's commercial and financial district.

In comparison with like units in the true subject-departmental library, the scope of these Boston departments is generally narrower and their work is more largely of a reference nature. It should also be noted that some of them owe their foundation either to the gift of special collections or to the bequest of special book funds rather than to any deliberate plan of specialization to meet the needs of the community. In 1940 the main building of the Boston Public Library had been in use for almost fifty years and tended to perpetuate the rather conservative type of organization for which it had been planned.

Essentially, the Boston Public Library in 1940 consisted of two almost completely separate operating libraries—a Reference Division and a Circulating Division—served by a common Division of Business Operations. Each of the first two divisions had a chief librarian, and the last was administered by the comptroller. The Reference Division also had a supervisor responsible to the chief librarian. The director's narrow span of control is an excellent feature of the Boston plan: only the chiefs of the three main divisions and a few staff officers report to him directly. In 1940 the Boston Public Library was the only one of the three studied which adequately co-ordinated the work of public departments in the central library.

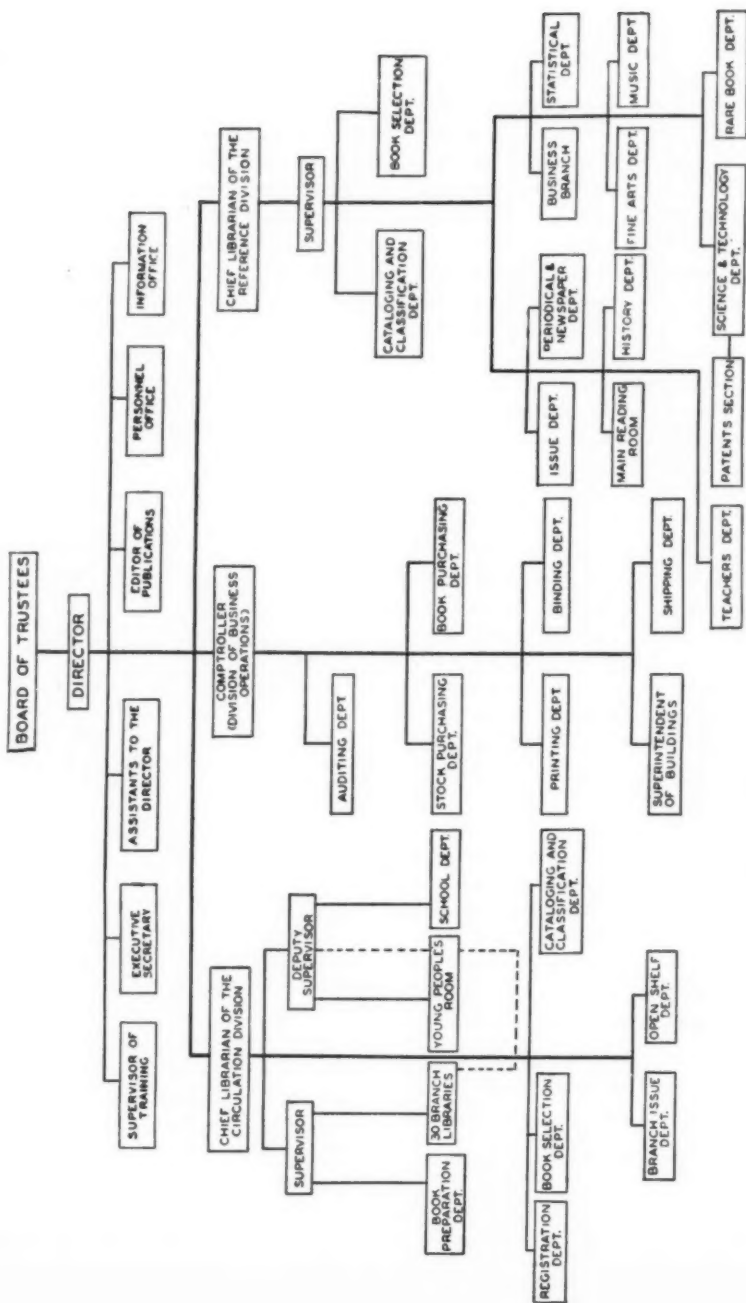


FIG. 2.—Organization of the Boston Public Library, 1940

St. Louis.—Figure 3 shows that in 1940 the adult public service departments of the St. Louis central library were the following: Circulation and Reference departments, functional in their character; Periodical, Newspaper, and Open-Shelf departments in which departmentation was based on the type of material made available, and three subject departments, Applied Science, Art, and a Teachers' department, in addition to a Municipal Reference Library. Of these the Art Department most closely resembled the true subject department as developed in Cleveland and Los Angeles, inasmuch as its circulation policy was fairly liberal. The Teachers' Room, established by the Stations and Traveling Library Department in the central library, was intended as a circulation agency, but such a unit inevitably develops some reference and advisory functions. In 1940 the St. Louis Public Library had neither a supervisor of branches nor one of central library departments. Some fifteen branches and an equal number of central library departments reported directly to the librarian. The central library building, though planned for a largely functional type of organization, is fairly adaptable and could probably be converted to suit the requirements of another type of organization.

USE OF REFERENCE MATERIALS IN THE THREE CENTRAL LIBRARIES

The difficulty of evaluating reference service has been much discussed in library literature⁴ and is frankly recog-

⁴ See for instance: Edith Guerrier, "The Measurement of Reference Service," *Library Journal*, LXI (July, 1936), 531; E. A. Henry, "Judging Reference Service," *Library Journal*, LXIV (May, 1939), 358; Enoch Pratt Free Library, *The Reorganization of a Large Public Library: Ten Year Report of the Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1926-1935* (Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1937), pp. 43, 45; Fre-

nized. Since some measurements of the quantity of reference service were necessary in order to test the hypothesis that the volume of service varies directly with the degree of subject specialization, three measures of use were selected for the purposes of this study. The first was the number of reference questions asked in the central library building in a week which library authorities considered typical. Since every reference librarian knows that patrons differ widely in their inclination and ability to answer their own

TABLE 1
REFERENCE USE OF THE THREE CENTRAL
LIBRARIES DURING A TYPICAL WEEK

Measures	Los Angeles	Boston	St. Louis
Reading-room attendance	41,982	17,951	5,748
Books used in reading rooms	37,743	13,350	11,253
Reference questions*	11,225	3,699	2,169

* Figures do not include questions asked by telephone.

questions and likewise that the degree of availability of reference materials is a factor influencing the reader's independence in the use of books, two other measures—the attendance in reading rooms and the number of books used in reading rooms but not circulated—have all been employed. Table 1 compares the three libraries with regard to these three measures of volume.

Though it is evident that the completely subject-departmentalized Los Angeles Public Library surpasses both the functionally organized St. Louis Public Library and the Boston Public Library in the volume of its central library reference work, this comparison may be considered unfair because Los Angeles is a much larger city than either St. Louis or

mont Rider, "Library Cost Accounting," *Library Quarterly*, VI (October, 1936), 379.

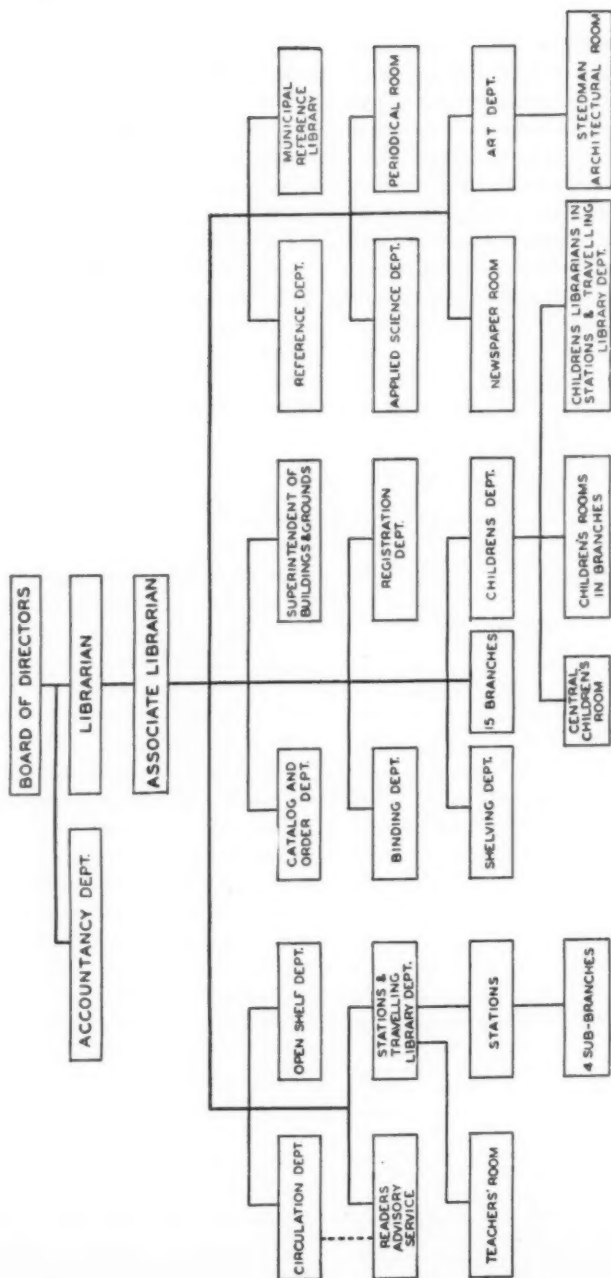


FIG. 3.—Organization of the St. Louis Public Library, 1940

Boston.⁵ To make a just comparison, annual per capita estimates of use based on figures presented in Table 1 have been made for each of the three measures used. These are presented in Table 2. These figures show not only that the subject-departmentalized Los Angeles Public Library leads the group in the volume of its central library service but that the three libraries rank in the order of the degree of subject specialization which they have achieved.

TABLE 2
ESTIMATED ANNUAL PER CAPITA USE OF
REFERENCE FACILITIES IN THREE
CENTRAL LIBRARIES

Measures	Los Angeles	Boston	St. Louis
Reading-room attendance	1.75	1.54	0.45
Books used in reading rooms.....	1.57	1.145	0.886
Reference questions.....	0.467	0.317	0.171

Another measure often employed in studies of this type is the proportion of the number of reference questions to the number of books circulated during a given period. Table 3 presents data on this point. Though the subject-departmentalized Los Angeles central library has attained a relatively large circulation as contrasted with that of St. Louis, its reference service has grown even more rapidly. The highest proportion is shown by the Boston Reference Division, but this appears to be due to the highly conserva-

tive attitude and practice of this division with regard to the circulation of its books.

Table 4 serves to sharpen the contrast between the subject-departmentalized and functional type of organization by omitting the library representing the mixed type; it likewise summarizes the findings of this section of the report.

While this study does not afford conclusive evidence on the relative quality of reference service in the three representative libraries, some information on the character of service was obtained. The large amount of special indexing done by clerical assistants in the Los Angeles departments appears to have secured for it the quickest service of the three. Statistics compiled from 1,048⁶ question blanks, covering the more important and difficult reference questions asked in each library during a typical week, suggest that it is probably true that the subject department uses more highly specialized reference tools than does the general reference department. Subject departments in all three libraries also made greater use of research and statistical materials than the St. Louis Reference Department, a fact which suggests that the subject-departmental library may be a better instrument for the dissemination of knowledge than the functionally organized library. Of the three libraries studied, the Boston Public Library was the largest user of scholarly printed bibliographies, while the Los Angeles Public Library made the greatest use of indexes and bibliographies created in the library itself. A comparison of interlibrary loan statistics showed that the Boston Public Library is by far the greatest lender of the three, possibly be-

⁵ In 1940 the population of the three cities was as follows: Los Angeles, 1,504,277; Boston, 770,816; St. Louis, 816,048. But since this investigation deals exclusively with adult service, the population over 15 years of age in 1940 has been used in these estimates. For Los Angeles this figure is 1,250,054; for Boston, 606,040; for St. Louis, 660,372. See U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population, Vol. II, Characteristics of the Population, Part 1, United States Summary* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943), pp. 121, 132-33, 143.

⁶ Of these, 482 were from the Los Angeles central library, 290 from the Boston Reference Division, and 276 from the St. Louis central library.

cause its rich special collections have been so fully described in printed catalogs.

Summary.—The preceding figures comparing the use made of the various forms of central reference service appear to justify the hypothesis that the subject-departmental type of organization provides the most adequate service. It has been shown that the use of the reference service in the three libraries generally corresponds to the degree of their specialization, the Boston Reference Division, with its numerous subject

COSTS

Judged by the criterion of public use, the foregoing section has shown that the subject-departmental type of organization provides better reference service than the functional and mixed types. The present section seeks to determine whether subject departmentation is more expensive than the other types and, in particular, whether it is more efficient, in the sense of producing a greater volume of service for a given expenditure. It should be noted that the findings of this study cannot be considered wholly con-

TABLE 3

RELATION OF THE NUMBER OF REFERENCE QUESTIONS ASKED TO THE NUMBER OF BOOKS CIRCULATED DURING A TYPICAL WEEK IN THE THREE CENTRAL LIBRARIES

LOS ANGELES			BOSTON			ST. LOUIS		
Number of Reference Questions	Circulation	Per Cent	Number of Reference Questions	Circulation	Per Cent	Number of Reference Questions	Circulation	Per Cent
11,225	27,672	40.6	3,699	7,013	52.1	2,169	6,659	33.0

departments usually standing much closer to the completely subject-departmentalized Los Angeles central library than to the functionally organized St. Louis central library. Although the evidence on the quality of reference service in the three libraries is by no means conclusive, its general trend is to favor the libraries of the subject-departmental and mixed types. As has been previously stated, other factors, such as the quality of library staffs, the educational level of the city's population, and the financial support the library receives contribute to the greater reference use in Los Angeles. But when all these factors are considered, it is still impossible to imagine that so great a volume of service could result from a simple functional organization.

TABLE 4
PER CAPITA MEASUREMENTS OF SERVICE IN THE LOS ANGELES AND ST. LOUIS CENTRAL LIBRARIES, 1940-41

Measurement	St. Louis	Los Angeles	Approximate Ratio St. Louis to Los Angeles
Attendance.....	0.45	1.75	1:4
Books used in reading rooms.....	.886	0.57	1:2
Circulation.....	.506	1.423	1:3
Reference questions..	0.171	0.467	1:3

clusive because only the two major costs—personnel and printed materials—have been investigated. The relative costs of processing materials⁷ and of housing cen-

⁷ In the newer "open-plan" building designed for the subject-departmental type of library, separate

tral library departments in the three representative libraries have not been investigated.

It is also essential to point out that all costs of central library personnel include both circulation and reference service. Since circulation and reference functions were inextricably combined in the majority of public departments of both the Boston and Los Angeles libraries and in several of those in the St. Louis library, it was found impossible to separate the

The cities of Boston and St. Louis, which are of comparable size, differed markedly in the amount expended on their public libraries, the amount spent in Boston being nearly two and one-half times as great as that in St. Louis. The average expenditure on the Boston Public Library even exceeded that of Los Angeles, a city approximately twice its size.

Total cost of salaries and books in circulation and reference departments.—

TABLE 5
TOTAL COST OF SALARIES AND BOOKS FOR CIRCULATION AND REFERENCE DEPARTMENTS
OF THE THREE CENTRAL LIBRARIES, 1935-39*

YEAR	LOS ANGELES			BOSTON			ST. LOUIS		
	Salaries	Books, Periodicals, and Binding	Total Operating Expenses (System)	Salaries	Books, Periodicals, and Binding	Total Operating Expenses (System)	Salaries	Books, Periodicals, and Binding	Total Operating Expenses (System)
1934-35†.....	\$193,430	\$48,303	\$ 241,733	\$105,000	\$ 82,272	\$187,272	\$61,571	\$30,914	\$ 92,485
1935-36.....	196,230	75,755	271,985	205,053	92,423	297,476	65,272	33,570	98,842
1936-37.....	184,330	70,227	254,557	216,888	100,531	317,419	66,373	34,591	100,964
1937-38.....	187,060	66,862	253,922	241,077	130,840	371,917	67,581	37,296	104,877
1938-39.....	193,400	68,102	261,502	248,936	161,563	410,499	67,316	30,203	97,519
Average..	\$191,010	\$65,850	\$256,860	\$221,391	\$113,528	\$334,919	\$66,023	\$33,315	\$ 99,338

* Source: For statistics of total operating expenses, annual reports of the three libraries; for departmental expenses, statistics furnished by accounting or order departments of each library.

† In the Los Angeles Public Library the fiscal year is from July 1 to June 30; in St. Louis it begins on April 1, but figures for Boston are for the calendar years from 1935 through 1939.

costs of these two types of service. Likewise, only departments which serve adults have been considered in this study; the cost of central library service to children is not included in any of the figures except those which deal with total library expenditures.

ABSOLUTE AND PROPORTIONAL COSTS

Total operating costs.—During the thirteen-year period from 1927 through 1939 the average annual expenditure of the three libraries was as follows: Los Angeles: \$1,145,251; Boston: \$1,262,708; and St. Louis: \$528,258.

subject-department catalogs are not considered absolutely necessary for public service.

Table 5 presents statistics secured from the accounting departments of the three libraries which show the cost of salaries and of books, periodicals, and binding for public departments of each of the three central libraries during the five years previous to 1940. For purposes of comparison the total operating expenditures are also included in the table. This table shows that on central library costs the three libraries rank in the same order as on total expenditures, Boston being first, Los Angeles second, and St. Louis third.

Proportional expenditures for central library circulation and reference departments.—It is often charged that the sub-

ject-departmental type of organization is unduly expensive,⁸ and there are several different methods of approaching the investigation of this question. One of these is to inquire what proportion of each library's salary-and-wage fund and what proportion of its general fund for books, periodicals, and binding is expended for these adult circulation and reference departments in the central library. By using the data contained in Table 5 and additional figures showing the total amounts expended for each purpose in each library system during the years 1935-39, the results presented in Table 6 have been obtained. It will be noted that while the St. Louis Public Library devotes about one-fifth of its salary-and-wage fund to the service of these central library departments, the Boston and Los Angeles libraries both spend about a fourth of their personnel money on them. This difference is considerable, but, as has already been shown, both of the last-mentioned libraries do a much larger volume of work in proportion to the size of the city served than does the St. Louis Public Library. Moreover, it can hardly be contended that a quarter of the library's personnel fund is too much to devote to salaries for the staff of the central library which performs such important circulation, reference, and research functions.

Table 6 also shows that the proportion of the book fund used for printed materials for the central library is quite similar in St. Louis and Los Angeles, but much higher in Boston. In neither St. Louis nor Los Angeles could the money available for books, periodicals, and binding be considered adequate to the li-

brary's needs; only in Boston was the central library book fund ample for the purpose. Probably the reason why the ratio of the central library fund to the total book fund is so high in Boston is that, while gift and endowment funds provide a sufficient income for book-buying for the Reference Division, branches are almost wholly dependent on city appropriations, and in recent years comparatively small amounts have been spent on books for the branches.⁹

TABLE 6
PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURES FOR SALARIES
AND BOOKS ALLOCATED TO CENTRAL CIR-
CULATION AND REFERENCE DEPART-
MENTS (AVERAGES: 1935-39)

PURPOSE	LOS ANGELES	BOSTON	ST. LOUIS
	Percent- age	Percent- age	Percent- age
Salaries and wages. . .	25.0	24.1	19.4
Books, periodicals, and binding.	38.9	54.5	36.3

The conclusion reached in regard to proportional costs is that, though the subject-departmental library probably requires a larger share of the library's total salary-and-wage fund, it may not require a much greater share of the book fund, and that the larger proportion of total library expenditure which it consumes may possibly be justified by the greater amount of service which it is capable of supplying to the public. Further evidence on this point will be presented hereafter.

⁸ See Althea Warren, "Departmental Organization of a Library by Subject," in *Current Issues in Library Administration*, ed. by C. B. Joeckel (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), pp. 122, 124.

⁹ Serious concern over the inadequate book funds provided for branch libraries was expressed by the Examining Committee (an advisory citizens' group) to the Board of Trustees in 1939. See Boston Public Library, *Annual Report, 1939*, pp. 22-26, 30-31.

DIFFERENCES IN OPERATING COSTS IN TERMS OF SERVICE RENDERED

Thus far absolute and proportional costs of central library service have been discussed, but no measurement of costs in terms of service demanded and performed has been undertaken. Since it is possible that a large volume of service will have the effect of decreasing unit costs of operation, it is important to devise some such measures. The two measures proposed, the per capita cost of central library service and the cost per unit

of books, periodicals, and binding is very small, and the difference in cost is relatively slight. Compared with all costs in Boston—that of salaries, of books, periodicals, and binding, and of these combined—the costs in Los Angeles and St. Louis are so moderate that the difference between the two seems of little importance and hardly worth emphasizing. Judged by per capita as well as by absolute costs, it appears that the library of the mixed type which supports both strong functional departments and nu-

TABLE 7
PER CAPITA COSTS OF CENTRAL LIBRARY SERVICE IN
THE THREE LIBRARIES, 1939

Cost or Percentage of Cost	Los Angeles	Boston	St. Louis
Total per capita cost of library service.....	\$ 0.717	\$ 1.80	\$ 0.62
Per capita cost of central library service (salaries, books, periodicals, and binding).....	.174	0.532	.12
Per capita cost of salaries, central library circulation and reference departments.....	.129	0.324	.083
Per capita cost of books, periodicals, and binding in central library.....	0.045	0.208	0.037
Percentage which per capita cost of central library service forms of total per capita costs of library service.....	24.3	29.6	19.4

of service, are indeed somewhat arbitrary and provide only a rough approximation of relative costs. Taken in conjunction with each other, however, they furnish some basis for judgment as to the comparative efficiency of the three types of organization.

Cost per capita of central library service.—Table 7, based on figures already presented in Table 5, gives per capita cost of central library service, including salaries, books, periodicals, and binding in the year 1939. It shows that the per capita cost of salaries for the circulation and reference departments of the central library is a little less than half again as great in Los Angeles as in St. Louis. In both of these libraries the per capita cost

merous subject departments is the most expensive to operate. The per capita cost of the subject-departmental type of organization, though somewhat greater than that of the functional type, is by comparison very moderate.

Cost of a unit of service rendered.—Costs of central library personnel for public departments, as given in Table 5, embrace both the cost of circulation and reference service because, in a study of libraries so differently organized, it was found impossible to separate the costs of types of service which are at many points so closely associated with each other. If a unit cost of service is to be used, it must therefore be one which can be used to

measure both circulation and reference work.

A recent study of costs in thirty-seven American public libraries¹⁰ shows the average cost in time spent on a reference question to be four times the average cost in time taken for the circulation of a book. If this proportion of four to one be taken as a standard, the number of reference questions asked during a given period should be multiplied by four and added to the circulation for the period, and the cost of personnel for circulation and reference purposes should then be divided by this weighted measure of service. The period used in this calculation was the year 1939, and the estimate of the number of reference questions for the year was based on the proportion of reference questions to circulation in a typical week of that year. When this calculation is employed in the three libraries the resulting approximate cost of a unit of service in each is as follows: Los Angeles: \$0.042; Boston: \$0.154; and St. Louis: \$0.093.

The unit cost of service is again the highest in Boston, but it is over twice as high in St. Louis as in Los Angeles. This estimate taken together with figures on per capita costs shows that with the great expansion of both circulation and reference service which accompanies subject departmentation, the per capita cost of central library personnel naturally increases, but the unit cost of service may be greatly decreased.

SUMMARY

Assuming that the three libraries selected for study are fair representatives of their types of organization, one may

justly conclude that, of the three, the subject-departmental type is the one best adapted to securing adequate and efficient reference service for the large public library. The functional type of organization, examined in the St. Louis central library, appears to be inadequate to supply the needs of so large a city, while the mixed type of organization exemplified by the Boston Reference Division, though more nearly adequate to its task, is very expensive. Of the three, only the subject-departmental form of organization, exemplified by the Los Angeles central library, proved to be capable of providing for a large expansion of reference service at a low unit cost.

WHY SUBJECT DEPARTMENTATION PRODUCES A MORE ADEQUATE AND EFFICIENT SERVICE

Though it is perhaps impossible to give any simple explanation of the greater potentiality of the subject-departmentalized central library for securing a satisfactory reference service, experience and observation tend to suggest that certain of its features and characteristics are well adapted to producing a service which is at once efficient and adequate. Many of the following statements, particularly those concerned with personnel and book collections, could be supported with statistical data, but for the sake of brevity the evidence is omitted. Those characteristics of subject departmentation which are thought to have increased the volume of reference service are ranged under the heading, "Adequacy"; those which it is judged have contributed to economy will be found under "Efficiency."

ADEQUACY

1. The subject-departmental type of organization furnishes an ample frame-

¹⁰ Emma V. Baldwin and William E. Marcus, *Library Costs and Budgets: A Study of Cost Accounting in Public Libraries* (New York: R.R. Bowker Co., 1941), p. 175, Table IV.

work within which reference service adequate to the needs of the population of a large city may evolve.

2. The subject-departmentalized library arranges for the display of a large proportion of the library's live, valuable, and interesting books on open shelves in departmental reading rooms, and thereby stimulates both home circulation and self-service in reference work.

3. In the functionally organized library the reference department favors a conservative circulation policy in the interest of its own service; in the subject-departmentalized library, where reference and circulation functions are united in each department, both types of service develop harmoniously without crippling each other.

4. To a certain degree specialization by subject divides the library's clientele into manageable segments, with like interests and preferences, and enables the library to reach the individual through service to the groups and associations which fall within the scope of each of the subject departments. Such an organization also promotes well-directed and effective publicity in specialized subject media.

5. The subject-departmental library develops a strong group of subordinate executives, interested in public service and capable of valuable assistance in library planning. This group also constitutes an able book-selection council, since the chief of each subject department possesses an intimate knowledge of the reading habits and requirements of patrons in his subject field.

6. Whatever the basic form of the library's organization, the creation of a subject department improves the library's holdings of printed materials in the subject field. In the functionally organized library this tendency of the iso-

lated subject department to strengthen its collection slightly disturbs the balance of the collection as a whole. In the completely subject-departmentalized library the same tendency at work in every department produces a general improvement in the quality of the library's holdings and secures a proper balance in the representation of various subjects.

7. Both observation of library collections and service and the checking of book lists in the three libraries would suggest that book selection in the subject-departmental library is probably more practical and utilitarian in its character than in libraries of either of the other types.

EFFICIENCY

1. Subject departmentation divides the universal field of the general reference department into fairly homogeneous sections and thus encourages the professional staff of each department to master the bibliography and literature of its subject field. The result is increased intelligence, skill, and speed in dealing with reference questions, and a consequent decreased cost per unit of service.

2. The subject-departmental public library has shown a disposition to economize by making a proper distinction between professional and clerical duties. It has set up appropriate standards and qualifications for both professional and clerical positions, and thus secured personnel with suitable education and training for both types of positions.

3. Since specialized reference service interests a larger proportion of a city's population than does the service of the functional reference department, it provides for a more continuous and therefore a more economical use of the valuable time of librarians who man the reference desks.

4. In subject departments clerical assistants, under the supervision of professional librarians, have achieved a thorough organization of knowledge through the creation of countless special indexes, bibliographies, and files of ephemeral materials. The greater speed and efficiency of subject-departmental service stems in part from this thorough organization of information and from the employment of other labor-saving methods and devices.

5. The subject-departmental library, with its many like units on the same or-

ganization level, produces a friendly rivalry between departments which results in unusual staff interest in the continuous and accurate evaluation of the library's public service.

6. The subject-departmentalized public library with its more ample provision for clerical service, its wider sharing of authority and responsibility, and its more vital public contacts appears to be capable of developing a more active and dynamic professional staff than either of the other types of organization studied.

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP¹

RALPH A. BEALS

TREATISES, essays, and addresses on education for librarianship now come a dime a dozen. To say that I was invited to add my two cents' worth is not a reasonable excuse for doing so: I could have refused the invitation. I did not refuse. The subject is one that circumstances forced me to deal with, bit by bit, for fifteen months. When a change of circumstances removed it from the center of my interests, I was frankly curious to see what the various facets of the problem would look like if fitted together and how well the pattern thus developed could survive criticism.

My obligations to others are heavy and will be evident. I have read with varying degrees of attention and profit a fair amount of the literature on the subject. If the names of Williamson, Reece, Wilson, Munn, Carnovsky, Butler, and Wheeler come first to mind, it may be partly because I have read or re-read their respective studies most recently. I am peculiarly indebted to the faculty and to my fellow-students in the Graduate Library School in 1939. From my own students in the Graduate Library School from 1942 to 1946, I am sure that I learned more about the nature and problems of education for librarianship than I ever succeeded in imparting to them. Some aspect of education for librarianship was the subject of almost daily discussion with my colleagues in the school, and in the last months of my association with that pleasant place, the subject was

discussed by the faculty as a whole both frequently and at great length. Beyond the confines of the school, I am indebted most to the chancellor, Robert Maynard Hutchins, not only for his own thought on the subject, but for his remarkable power of inducing thought in others, even in an administrative officer; and to Clarence Faust, then dean of the College and later dean of the Graduate Library School, for what understanding I have of general education as both the beginning and the center of education for librarianship.

Although it is a pleasure for me thus to acknowledge my indebtedness to others, I doubt that others are likely to find much, if any, satisfaction in observing the use I have made of my obligations. None of the persons upon whose wisdom I have drawn will agree with all or even much of what I am about to say; and I suspect that some will disagree with everything from the ground up.

I

The main outlines of education for any profession will be set by the characteristics which distinguish the professions from all other walks of life. Among the more obvious features that present themselves, four only can be singled out in this paper.

1. The members of any profession characteristically are suffused by a deep sense of moral purpose, by a passion to improve the lot of man and of man in society as the end of their professional endeavor.

2. The professions have developed a

¹ A paper read before the Thirty-third Conference of Eastern College Librarians held at Columbia University on November 30, 1946.

scholarly literature of ample proportions recording a wide range of objective and verified fact held in the integrating framework of systematic theory.

3. Each profession has developed techniques peculiarly its own for applying its system of knowledge to specific instances.

4. The responsibility for the refinement and extension of objective, verified fact, systematic theory, and special technique is widely diffused in the profession at large.

These four characteristics at least are common to the generally accepted professions. Any program of professional education, therefore, must take all four into account, and in due proportion. Many of us can recall teachers, including teachers of librarianship, who have been distinguished primarily by moral fervor, wide learning, technical skill, or research ability. All in proportion make for virtue; one carried to the extreme becomes a vice.

A second set of factors that affect the pattern of education for librarianship resides in the characteristics that distinguish librarianship from the other professions. No one of the factors so observed may be unique to librarianship. But there are certain characteristics which, taken collectively, apply to no other profession.

In the first place, the breadth or scope or range of librarianship is approached only in a very few of the greatest universities. Even a village library embraces interests of surprising breadth, and readers may call upon the librarian for assistance at any point. It is often said that the librarian is the last "polyhistor" or universal scholar. By all canons of modern scholarship this proposition is preposterous. The best one can say is that it has never been disproved. It is obvious that the general librarian can never ex-

pect to rival the economist, the chemist, or the musician in his knowledge of economics, chemistry, or music; but unless he knows more about music and chemistry than the typical economist, he is likely to fail as a librarian.

Now no one expects the general medical practitioner to rival the specialized knowledge and skill of the neurologist, the gynecologist, or the pediatrician. Neither does anyone expect the country doctor to prepare himself for practice by mastering the separate specialties of neurology, gynecology, and pediatrics. Everyone grants that there is a central core of basic and clinical science common to all medicine, upon which the intending specialist may erect his specialty. Yet no one, as far as I know, has yet defined, by analogy, a common body of knowledge about knowledge for the general librarian. What the general librarian knows about economics or chemistry or music we still expect him to acquire as if he were to become an economist, a chemist, or a musician. As a result, we are not offering an adequate subject foundation for general librarianship. The creation of such a foundation, a body of knowledge about knowledge for the general librarian, is one of the obvious needs of the future.

A second characteristic that distinguishes librarianship from most other professions is the fact that successful practice requires an elaborate and expensive instrument that few librarians are likely to afford. Medicine and engineering may be practiced, and practiced brilliantly, by a single individual with modest equipment. Librarianship cannot. A librarian without a library is as useless as a musician without piano or violin. The librarian, like the pianist, requires an instrument of great complexity, which he can master only by the patient

development of both theory and technique. In addition, the librarian, unlike the musician, must learn to design and evoke the instrument upon which his skill is to be exercised. In this respect, librarianship resembles no profession that I can think of except that of museology. Both museology and librarianship require a knowledge of the theory, structure, and uses of collections as collections, including a knowledge of the characteristics that distinguish the particular body of users for whom the collections are formed.

It should be observed in passing that the typical library of our time, and the library, therefore, toward which education for librarianship should be primarily directed, is a small library. Whether a school or a college library, the public library of a small town, or a branch library in a city system, the typical library is small in terms of its book collection and working personnel. The full implications of these two facts have not received adequate recognition in the library schools best known to me, which have tended toward a preoccupation with the problems presented by large collections and specialized staffs. Whether a single mind can wholly comprehend a small library is doubtful; that it can never comprehend a large and complex library in its entirety is certain.

A third characteristic that distinguishes librarianship from certain other professions is its institutional setting. A library, like a school, a college, or a museum, is a social institution. The characteristics of social institutions obviously must be understood if they are to be administered satisfactorily.

A third set of factors affecting education for librarianship grows out of the migration of library schools from libraries to universities. This movement, which

had begun before World War I, was not entirely concluded by the outbreak of World War II; but, generally speaking, between the wars an attempt was made to transform education for librarianship from an apprenticeship served in libraries to a discipline pursued in universities. No one would deny that this transformation remains incomplete, although we might not agree about the objectives to be sought or the degree of progress thus far attained.

No subject is likely to flourish in the modern university whose professors are not preoccupied with extending the frontiers of knowledge. A university has been defined as a company of scholars with students in attendance. At the graduate level, the great teachers are those who work on the boundaries of their subject. Their object is to clarify and to refine the ends of their discipline; to establish fresh facts; and to attain sharper, more comprehensive, more accurate statements of the principles that comprehend the facts. Without the spark of creative scholarship, graduate teaching becomes ritualistic and sterile. The idea of librarianship as a discipline to be pursued and perfected at the university level has dominated the Graduate Library School from its foundation. The leadership of the Graduate Library School in this respect is being sharply challenged, as it must be, if a true discipline of librarianship is to be created.

It is evident that the emerging discipline of librarianship cannot become a pure science like economics, linguistics, or physics. It is rather an applied science like law, medicine, and engineering. It is in the history of applied fields, therefore, that library schools are likely to find the hints most useful for their own future.

A fundamental choice must be made between the pattern of medicine and the

pattern of engineering. Medicine lays a common groundwork for all practitioners, which is also the foundation for those who choose to specialize. In engineering, specialization begins early in separate curriculums for civil engineering, mechanical engineering, hydraulic engineering, etc. The typical library school has fixed upon a type that is nearer to the pattern of engineering than to the pattern of medicine. My views on this subject are distinctly unorthodox: the basic requirements of curriculums in librarianship are too few and too narrow. Furthermore, the specializations now generally offered in public librarianship or academic librarianship begin too soon; these specialties, as now offered, are not true specialties, since the fields as defined have more elements in common than points of difference.

In comparison with university schools of medicine, engineering, and law, university schools of librarianship have been conspicuously unsuccessful in defining their requirements for the admission of students; in drawing upon relevant resources elsewhere in the university; and in contributing to or even influencing the scholarly enterprise at large or in related fields.

Faculties of medicine, engineering, and law know what prior preparation they expect of their students, and they specify that preparation in great detail. The typical requirement for admission to a library school is graduation from a four-year course in an accredited institution. The issue is thus neatly begged. What the prospective librarian needs is a good general education. What he is asked to present is a demonstration of his ability to survive for four years in environments of widely varying intellectual climates. There he is expected to have accumulated assorted knowledge, abilities, and

skills in which there are no common denominators and in which nothing at all may be taken for granted, not even the ability of the candidate to read his mother-tongue with reasonable exactness and comprehension, or to organize and express his thoughts in reasonably literate English. A tragic irony of our times is the spectacle of library school faculties, whose natural allegiance lies on the side of the angels, sitting on the sidelines—mute, inglorious, and impotent—while general education, the only defensible preparation of their students, is destroyed by the academic departments and the other professional schools which lay down detailed and conflicting requirements for admission to the advanced instruction offered under their auspices.

The transfer of the schools from libraries to universities has not been followed by the integration of school with university that proponents of the transfer must have hoped for. I am sure that the Graduate Library School is not alone in pushing its fledglings into other departments and schools for a part of their work. This practice has the virtue of exposing the immature student to the more rigorous intellectual discipline of the older fields, but it is of dubious value as a means of increasing his knowledge in ways both beneficial and economical of time and effort. These remarks are not to be construed as an argument for further hybrids like business English or educational psychology. They are first a protest against the "purity" involved in the concept of sociology for sociologists, psychology for psychologists, and education for educators; and, second, a protest against the piecemeal approach to the central problems of our own or any time. How the gods must laugh at the confusion created by economists gravely

teaching their students how to keep tax rates low, political scientists expounding the principles of the economical collection and administration of tax funds, lawyers and businessmen astutely devising means for the evasion of taxes, and the schools of social service, education, and librarianship reporting the methods found most successful in obtaining the largest possible share of tax funds for their respective enterprises. The problem of public finance is a single problem and must be so viewed by all the interested parties. The implications for library schools are twofold: first, library school faculties of the kind we need can contribute usefully to the study and teaching of subjects beyond the traditional limits of our field; and, second, if we are to have an intellectual discipline of librarianship, if we are to have a true specialization in generality of the kind we have long said we wanted, it will not be created by the faculties of library schools alone. If the faculties of our library schools are to succeed in creating this specialization in the general, they must seek and obtain the co-operation of other disciplines to a degree thus far not even attempted.

II

It is all very well, you may say, to reflect on the ends of librarianship, the characteristics of the professions, the characteristics that distinguish librarianship among the professions, and the place of professional schools in universities; but what has all this to do with education for librarianship? What would a curriculum look like if designed with these considerations in mind?

Even if the factors thus far mentioned exhausted the possibilities—and they do not; and even if all critics were to agree that the factors mentioned were relevant—and they will not; the number of dif-

ferent programs that could be evolved logically from the foregoing considerations is very great. What follows is no more than an attempt to sketch one program as illustrative of the possibilities.

This program would assume a good general education as a requirement for admission to the school. What this general education should comprise would be defined in some detail. That the students admitted met the requirements so defined would be attested by examination, not by certification.

The degree certifying the competence of the graduate librarian likewise would be awarded by examination. Ideally, this examination should be designed and administered by persons other than those offering the instruction. Only in this way will the knowledge and the abilities of the candidates be subjected to a comprehensive test. Until graduates of library schools are subjected to a comprehensive test, the degree in librarianship will have no readily understood meaning. The examinations, and the courses preparatory to the examination, might be established about as follows:

1. Subject field, 30 per cent
2. The theory of communication, the ends and means of librarianship, and the nature and administration of social institutions, 20 per cent
3. The formation and use of book collections, 20 per cent
4. Seminar and thesis, 20 per cent
5. Directed practice, 10 per cent

III

Each student would be expected to demonstrate his competence in one of the traditional fields of knowledge. For the purpose in view, any field would serve—history, government, literature, language, philosophy, physics, biology, or any other. The entire field should be

covered systematically in a degree of detail intermediate between the conventional undergraduate major and the ideal of the Master's degree. Two recent sequences developed at the University of Chicago offer examples of contrasting scope: the sequence of six courses designed for teachers of biology at the level of general education and the sequence of nine courses designed to prepare students for the Master's examination in anthropology. Although more and more librarians are finding employment as subject specialists, the mastery of a subject field would not be required in order to produce additional subject specialists. It would be required as a corrective in perspective. If the basic training for librarianship is properly to be viewed as an extension of general education, then the breadth of view to be developed may lead to superficiality. By the intensive cultivation of some one segment in which the student comes to feel reasonably at home, and by the comparison of the fuller knowledge thus gained in his special field with the limited knowledge of the same field acquired in the basic course, the student will be encouraged to develop a becoming sense of modesty in estimating his own attainments. It might be argued also, though on more doubtful grounds, that erecting a detailed structure of economics or history or chemistry on the broad foundations of the basic training will develop the technique or the "sixth sense" by which the librarian works in some minute aspect of a field in which his own knowledge is not specialized.

IV

A second block of work, begun with the study of the subject field and carried along parallel to it, would deal with the theory of communication, with ends and means of librarianship, and with the na-

ture and administration of social institutions.

That the novice might early form appropriate ideas about the subject of his study, this unit might appropriately begin with the rapid reading of books and articles about kinds of libraries and the work of specific libraries, accompanied, if practicable, with visits of inspection to libraries of various types.

Such a survey leads inevitably to the fundamental questions: Why have libraries been formed? What are they trying to accomplish? What is the *end* of librarianship? These questions invite a comparison of the library with other institutions, like schools, colleges, and museums, which share the common end of diffusing and extending our culture.

The problem of communication would then be examined, including a study of typical methods and media, with emphasis upon the graphic record of our culture imbedded in books, periodicals, maps, prints, and other materials; the psychology and sociology of reading; and the uses of print. Attention would be given to the great historical epochs and to the relation of libraries of the past to the coeval culture from which they sprang.

Attention might turn then to the central problem of librarianship: the principles which govern the development of book collections of various kinds; problems of acquisition; the basic records of a library; the functions of impersonal interpretation through classification, subject cataloging, and bibliography; also the functions of personal interpretation through reference work, advisory work, discussion groups, etc.

This unit would appropriately conclude with an examination of the library as a social institution, viewed first in its setting in society, and, finally, in terms

of its internal management and administration.

V

The third part of the proposed curriculum, dealing with the formation and the use of book collections, grows out of, combines, and extends the traditional courses in book selection, reference, and, in part, classification. The main lines of advance have already been laid down in the schools that have developed unified courses in the "book arts."

The traditional approach to book selection and reference tended to obscure the forest by detailed consideration of many trees. It is essential that the attention of the student be focused on the library as a library, i.e., a collection of books chosen and organized for the use of a particular body of readers. Such an approach demands, on the one hand, a consideration of the criteria that determine which of the fifteen-million-odd books theoretically available are best suited to a particular library; and, on the other, the needs and abilities of the particular group of readers for whom the library exists. The vast quantities of different books available set no practical limits upon the number of different combinations of books that could be evolved in establishing a small library, say of ten thousand volumes. Of the innumerable combinations theoretically possible, one particular combination will best meet the requirements of the persons for whose use the library is intended. Similarly, it is obvious that among the ten thousand or ten million books at hand, one title or a particular combination of titles will meet a given requirement better than the other thousands or millions of titles, which will contribute nothing to the immediate purpose. No one would deny that, since a library is a collection of

books and other materials, the widest possible acquaintance with books and other materials is greatly to be desired in a librarian. But a wide knowledge of books as books, of single titles in whatever prodigal profusion, is insufficient for the development or intelligent use of a collection of books beyond the simplest. To suppose that it is sufficient is no more sensible than to suppose that a mastery of cytology, the science of cellular structure, would produce a competent botanist, biologist, or physician. To a knowledge of his library's cells, the librarian needs to add a systematic knowledge of its structure, as an organized collection; and a systematic knowledge of the multiple uses to which it may be put, again as an organized collection. To the study of the cytology of libraries must be added the study of the anatomy and the physiology of libraries.

The problem thus posed is not easy to solve, and many attempts at a solution may be needed before the best solution is found. The traditional approach to book selection, reference, and classification left much to be desired, particularly, when, as seemed often the case, attention was directed primarily to the study of individual titles. Since the number of titles that can be examined in the time available is unhappily few, the notion developed that book selection, classification, subject bibliography, and reference are techniques that can be abstracted in the course of examining a few examples and applied thereafter to all the examples that one may encounter. This view is buttressed by the undoubted fact that descriptive cataloging, because it deals only with the book as a physical object, is a technique that can be developed adequately from a limited number of well-selected cases and thereafter applied to all, or nearly all, examples that one may

encounter. But book selection, classification, subject bibliography, and reference, because they deal with the understood book in contrast with the physical book, are not techniques in the same sense. Their practice requires a kind of knowledge about all knowledge that is extensive, comprehensive, and systematic. Library schools generally seem to have assumed that this extensive, comprehensive, and systematic knowledge about knowledge was acquired by their students as undergraduates. To suppose that it was acquired through the pastiche of unrelated trifles that could be offered for the Bachelor's degree by my generation was utter nonsense. To suppose that sounder programs of general education already formed or now forming are alone adequate seems doubtful, unless one is prepared to grant that the general education needed by all men is also a sufficient education for the librarian, who, at least in theory, takes all knowledge as his province. This is a hypothesis that I, for one, cannot accept. If librarianship is to create a specialty of generality—and such a specialization in the general is one of the great needs, not merely of librarianship, but of all scholarship in our time—then the educators of librarians, with the help of specialists in the traditional fields, must create it.

In such a study, a convenient point of departure is the problem of knowledge and the characteristic views that philosophers have held of it. Then might follow an examination of representative formulations of the fields of knowledge as an introduction to the two principal schematizations for the arrangement of books in libraries, the Dewey Decimal classification and the classification of the Library of Congress. Taking one scheme as the primary basis and employing the other for comparative purposes, the in-

structors could develop a systematic overview, first of the so-called "generalia," then field by field.

The methods appropriate to such an examination are many, and they may not prove to be the same for every field. In general, however, they may be expected to include: a survey of the ways in which men have studied and worked in each field; the major problems with which it is now concerned; the relations of these problems to one another and to other fields; the careful reading of a few works selected for their excellence, followed by a discussion of the qualities that make them great; the rapid reading of lesser works; an examination of the appropriate shelves in a well-selected school or public library of moderate size; the discrimination of readily perceptible kinds, such as scholarly monographs, summary texts, popularizations, serials; and a leisurely examination of the principal key books, or reference works, such as specialized dictionaries, handbooks, encyclopedias, bibliographies, yearbooks, and the like. Thus the student would be called upon to review and extend the stock of facts and concepts he had acquired in general education; to relate them systematically to a comprehensive scheme for the organization of knowledge; and to see them in terms of bibliographical units, each of which should be examined for its contribution to libraries of various size and purpose and in terms of the uses to which each might be put in those libraries. Book selection and reference work—or, better still, advisory work—thus are seen for what they really are: the "before" and "after" aspects of a single problem.

VI

The requirements for seminars and thesis rest on two assumptions concern-

ing the preparation of the librarian: first, that he should have at least limited opportunities to lay the foundations for true specialization; and, second, that he should have training in the methods of investigation appropriate to his field and some exercise of his powers to deal creatively with an important, unsolved problem.

Theoretically, any topic in librarianship is a suitable subject for a seminar. Practically, the subjects offered should be limited by the active research interests of the faculty. The enthusiasm, knowledge, and imaginative insight of a man working intensively on the frontier of his subject far outweigh the advantage, hitherto sought, of "covering" librarianship as a whole.

Ideally, the program of each student would show some balance between topics in communication, librarianship, and administration; and topics in historical bibliography. Obvious examples of the first kind are book selection; descriptive bibliography; the interpretative functions of classification, subject bibliography, reference work, and advisory work; the history and organization of libraries or the book trade; personnel work, etc. Topics in historical bibliography might be developed in terms of a traditional subject field like economics, English literature, or botany; in terms of form, like serials, documents, or maps; or in terms of type, like the novel, especially the "nonclassic" novel, still completely ignored in the formal preparation of our students, although it is the staple of advisory work in public libraries.

Whatever his subject, the instructor could assume a knowledge of the rudiments laid down in the work of the first two years. A variety of methods is possible, but a few common features should be insisted upon: (1) substantial exten-

sion of the student's knowledge of what has already been thought and done about the subject; (2) a critical examination of the nature and reliability of the methods employed to bring our knowledge of the subject to its present state; (3) attention to the more important unsolved problems; and (4) some exercise of the student's ability to apply his knowledge to the solution of a number and variety of *small* problems.

From these should emerge at least one problem to test the student's powers of reason, imagination, and grasp of method in the ampler limits of a thesis or dissertation.

VII

Practical work loomed large in the first library schools. After the migration of the schools to the universities, practical work was somewhat curtailed, and what remained was usually dignified—and so denatured—by reconstituting it as "laboratory work," apart from the rough and tumble of a busy library.

The only possible way in which anyone can master the practical operations of a library is to take part in a wide variety of the practical operations carried on in a well-conducted library. Most of our present graduates have no such opportunities except on the very limited scale of part-time employment, in which the educative aspects of the experience are kept to a carefully controlled minimum. The object of practice work should not be to provide free or inexpensive help to the participating libraries. The object of practice work should be to use libraries in the training of librarians as intelligently as hospitals are now used in the training of physicians and surgeons. In this way, and in this way only, students will develop sound habits for the application through practice of the theory de-

veloped systematically by reading, lectures, and discussion in the classroom.

Each piece of practical work would begin with a carefully selected set of graded exercises to develop skill and confidence, which, when established, would enable the student to cope, under direction, with the normal problems presenting themselves in the daily work of the library, point by point. Ideally, the full period of apprenticeship would not be spent in one library, but in several libraries; and some opportunity for specialization could be achieved by arranging practice work in school libraries for school librarians, college libraries for college librarians, and public libraries for public librarians.

VIII

It may need to be shown that this is capable of achievement. Some will ask whether what is proposed can be accomplished in one year. The answer, of course, is, no, why should it be? Yet it can be accomplished without prolonging the period of time now being devoted to the education of librarians, provided better use is made of the time already available.

The solution is clearest to me in the context of the University of Chicago, the university with which I am best acquainted. In the University of Chicago general education may be undertaken by properly qualified students at the end of the second year of high school. This pro-

gram of general education normally requires four years to complete, bringing the student to his Bachelor's degree at the end of what was formerly the Sophomore year. The Bachelor's degree is awarded only upon satisfactory completion of the comprehensive examinations, for which a carefully planned series of general courses is offered by way of preparation. The instruction, which is both comprehensive and thorough, lays an admirable foundation for librarianship.

After taking the Bachelor's degree, students who continue in the University enter one of the divisions or a professional school. In the divisions, students normally spend three years working toward the Master's degree. The program just suggested for librarianship could be completed in three years. The degree appropriate for this work, by analogy with the work done in the divisions, is the Master's degree.

What could be accomplished in the University of Chicago could certainly be accomplished elsewhere, although some ingenuity might be needed to adjust the program to the framework of the other universities.

It remains to ask whether such a program is desirable. To me, the answer is obvious. But that may be because the kind of education I have sketched is not the kind of education I got, but the kind I wish I had.

THE COVER DESIGN

MICHEL HILLEN was born in Hoogstraten, a village eighteen miles northwest of Antwerp. He moved to the wealthy city of Antwerp and began printing about 1506. In 1508, he was enrolled a burgher of that city. His first shop was at the Chambre gate in the Lombard quarter, but, probably because of expanding business, he moved, in 1509, to the Sign of the Three Candlesticks in the Church Yard of Notre Dame and then, in 1518, to the Sign of the Turnip in the Cammerstraet.

He printed for twenty-eight to thirty years, but in 1546, after the death of his son John (who was also a printer) he handed over his establishment to his son-in-law, Jean Steelsius. Hillen died on July 22, 1558, and was buried in the Franciscan monastery at Antwerp.

Hillen's output was prodigious. He printed over four hundred editions. And although he confined himself almost entirely to octavos and quartos—he printed about a dozen folios for other stationers—most of these books are substantial volumes. Many of his books he published, but he printed for stationers not only in Antwerp but in Cologne, Louvain, Mons, and London as well. Most of his books were in Latin, but he printed in Greek, Hebrew, French, Flemish, and Spanish.

Hillen was a man of some learning. He edited and wrote prefaces for a number of his books. He was an ardent humanist. Erasmus was a favorite author of his press. He printed also

the classics, works of devotion, several editions of the New Testament, both in Latin and in Flemish, canon law, medicine, schoolbooks, and some popular romances. He issued books both by and against the Protestant reformers. Besides printing for two English stationers, Hillen showed an interest in English authors. He printed works by Henry VIII and by Bishop

John Fisher.

Hillen's shop was well provided with types. His books were frequently lavishly provided with illustrations, borders, and ornaments.

Reproduced is one of the last of Hillen's nine marks—in use in and after 1536. The engraving is attributed to Dirk Vellert. The central figure is Time who stands against a tree, possibly the *Arbor Vitae*. His left hand holds a shield on which appears a winged hourglass. A scythe, its blade on the ground, rests against his chest, while with his right hand he grasps an infant

whom, Kronos-like, he is about to devour. The obvious symbolism of the mark is Time devouring Youth.

Another of Hillen's marks also carries out the Time-as-Kronos theme. Here Time is represented as holding either the sickle or the *harpe* in one hand, while with the other he holds a serpent with its tail in its mouth, a symbol of Eternity.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

TEMPVS.



THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

RALPH A. BEALS is director of the New York Public Library. He was born in Deming, New Mexico, on March 29, 1899. He saw service in World War I in 1918; graduated with an A.B. degree from the University of California in 1921, and for the next two years held the position of secretary to the president of the University of California. He then went on to further study at Harvard University, where he received his Master's degree in 1925. He taught English at Harvard, 1926-28, and at New York University, 1928-33. From 1933 to 1939 he was assistant to the director of the American Association for Adult Education.

In 1939-40 Mr. Beals studied at the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago and went from there to become assistant librarian of the Public Library in Washington, D.C. He returned to Chicago in 1942 to accept the position of professor of library science and director of libraries at the University of Chicago. He served as dean of the Graduate Library School from 1945 to 1946, when he accepted his present appointment.

Mr. Beals is the author of *Aspects of a Post-collegiate Education*, published by the American Association for Adult Education in 1935; co-author, with Leon Brody, of *The Literature of Adult Education* (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941); editor, with M. E. Barnicle and J. S. Terry, of *Readings in Description and Narration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930); and, in 1937-38, editor, with Morse A. Cartwright, of the *Journal of Adult Education*.

PHILIP C. BROOKS is acting director of the General Records Office of the National Archives. He was born on January 14, 1906, in Washington, D.C. After his graduation from the University of Michigan (B.A., 1928), he did newspaper work in Detroit and San Francisco. He then studied at the University of California, receiving the M.A. degree in 1930 and the Ph.D. in history in 1933. After teaching at the University of California and at George Washington University, he joined the National Archives when it was opened in 1935 and has been there since. His special interests at the Archives

have been in the fields of records retirement and of the evaluation of records for disposal and retention.

Mr. Brooks is the author of *Diplomacy and the Borderlands: The Adams-Onís Treaty of 1819*, published by the University of California Press in 1939, and of articles on diplomatic history and archival problems in historical and archival journals.

LUTHER H. EVANS, present Librarian of Congress, was born near Sayersville, Texas, on October 13, 1902. He received the A.B. degree from the University of Texas in 1923 and was awarded the M.A. degree one year later. After spending the summer of 1924 in Europe making observations on the governments of France, England, and Switzerland, and on the activities of the League of Nations, he accepted an instructorship at Leland Stanford Junior University. In the course of three years of teaching at Stanford, he completed the work for the Ph.D. degree in political science, with modern history as the minor subject. In October, 1946, he received the honorary degree of Doctor of Humane Letters at Yale University.

After teaching government at New York University (1927-28) and at Dartmouth (1928-30), he was assistant professor of politics at Princeton University from 1930 to 1935. In the summer of 1935 Dr. Evans was invited to organize the Historical Records Survey of the Works Projects Administration. He served as national director of the Survey, even after his appointment to the staff of the Library of Congress, until his successor was appointed on March 1, 1940. From December 1, 1939, to November 1, 1940, Dr. Evans held the position of director of the Legislative Reference Service in the Library of Congress, and was then appointed chief assistant librarian. In this position he was called upon to serve a total of one and one-half years as Acting Librarian of Congress, and was a principal participant in the Library's reorganization in the early 1940's. He became Librarian of Congress in 1945.

In November, 1945, Dr. Evans served as advisor to the United States delegation at the London Conference to prepare a constitution for

an educational and cultural organization of the United Nations; in September, 1946, he became a member of the United States National Commission for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and is currently serving on the executive committee of the Commission. He was the United States delegate to the Inter-American Conference on Copyright and participated closely in the work of drafting a new copyright convention, signed June 22, 1946, for the American countries. He has served as a member of the Joint Committee on Books for Devastated Libraries, on the Committee on the Records of War Administration and the Council on War History, as an honorary consultant to the Army Medical Library, on the Board of Trustees of Biological Abstracts, as a trustee of the American Military Institute, and as a member of the Advisory Committee on the Papers of Thomas Jefferson, which are to be published by the Princeton University Press.

Dr. Evans has been active in the work of library associations, and he has contributed in speeches and articles to the solution of a number of library problems. For three years he served as director of the reference librarians' section of the Association of College and Reference Libraries; and he served one year as vice-president of the Society of American Archivists.

In addition to his contributions to professional journals, he is also the author of *The Virgin Islands from Naval Base to New Deal*, pub-

lished in Ann Arbor, Michigan, by J. W. Edwards in March, 1945.

ROSE B. PHELPS, assistant professor of library science at the University of Illinois Library School, was born in Manton, Michigan, October 16, 1893. Her undergraduate work for the Bachelor's degree was completed at the University of Michigan in 1922; her professional study, at the School of Library Service, Columbia University, where she received the B.S. degree in 1928, the M.S. degree in 1930; and at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, where she was awarded a Ph.D. degree in 1943.

Miss Phelps spent a year as assistant in the Alma College Library (1922-23), another year as reference assistant at the University of Texas Library (1923-24), and the three following years as reference librarian at Michigan State College. In 1928-29 she was an instructor at the University of Illinois Library School. In 1930 she served for a year as branch reference supervisor at the Queens Borough Public Library in Jamaica, New York, returning to the University of Illinois in 1931 to accept the post of associate in the Library School. She was appointed an assistant professor there in 1941.

In 1930 and 1938 Miss Phelps taught at the summer sessions of the School of Library Service, Columbia University. She served as a member of the Subscription Books Committee of the American Library Association in 1944-45.

REVIEWS

Of Making Many Books: A Hundred Years of Reading, Writing and Publishing. By ROGER BURLINGAME. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1946. Pp. xii+347. \$3.75.

This is the story of the first hundred years of Scribner's, one of the great publishing houses of this country, one of the very few of comparable age of which I know still run by descendants of the founder. The author's father was the first editor of *Scribner's Magazine*, and the author himself was for ten years with the firm. During his ten years, he says:

I learned the worst of authors and the best of publishers. I had to tease, cajole, humor, placate and scold angry and brooding men and women who had found a superfluous semicolon or refused to believe a royalty report or searched the *Times* in vain for an advertisement or been unable to buy a copy of their precious books in Brentano's or received a long-suffering bill for corrections, after illegibly rewriting a book on the page-proof; and others who believed that the entire House of Scribner had been erected and maintained for the exclusive delight of printing their books. Against this I saw on the inside the persistent struggle to reconcile cost with beauty of manufacture, the generous adjustment of royalty to "plant," the failure of advertising and the inexplicable moments when expected best-sellers stopped in the midst of their first editions.

When he left Scribner's to become a freelance author, he says:

I forgot my lessons as quickly as I had learned them. When my first dubious literary conceptions attained the flesh of print, I too haunted the bookstores, complained about advertising, royalty, semicolons and jackets with the worst of them and referred to the unhappy gentlemen who had tried to break even on my efforts as "confidential publishers." Yet there were grievances too that I think will still stand scrutiny. So today I can read an author's lament to his publisher with more understanding than if I had never written one to mine, and I can see a deal of background behind the patient, irritated or evasive lines of the publisher's reply.

I quote these passages because they describe better than anything I can say the qualifications of the author and the spirit in which he has undertaken his task. The book is a cross between literary and publishing history, and I believe is about as palatable an introduction to book-pub-

lishing problems as anything in print. I found most interesting the author's argument that, while a publisher can help his authors with criticisms and suggestions and encouragement of one kind or another, the creative job, if it is done at all, has to be done by the author. There can be no doubt of the validity of the experience on which the author quotes Tom Wolfe, "... as I face my work alone I am pretty close to naked terror, naked nothing. I know that no one can help me or guide me or put me right." Yet, if there had been no Max Perkins, no editorial staff capable of giving him the advice and encouragement given him by Scribner's, in my opinion there would have been no Tom Wolfe. A good publisher is more than a midwife.

I do not know of any other commodities like books and the stories and songs and poems and ideas they contain. They are not like land or houses or food or clothes. You cannot, along with even one other person, occupy the same space or eat the same food or wear the same clothes. You can read the same book and you cannot ever use it up.

I would like to believe that someday nobody anywhere in the world will suffer for lack of material things, that men will govern themselves in their private and public affairs so well that all miseries on account of physical poverties will disappear. But I cannot escape the conviction that every approach toward the solution of this problem is dependent on the prior correction of a more basic poverty, that of the things of the mind.

I do not know why economists have not gone into this subject; perhaps it is too upside down for them. A good house, or a good suit of clothes, multiplied a million times may become much less desirable. But a good idea may seem worthless if only one man has it. It may seem not only worthless; it may be regarded as a sign of an unhealthy mental condition. But if two billion people have the same idea, it may be infinitely valuable. Suppose, for instance, it was possible to get everybody in the world to accept the idea of not using violence to achieve his ends in dealing with others. This idea, I am certain, is more valuable than all the physical wealth the

world now holds. But try to give it to people and see what happens. Worse yet, a certain measure of success in giving it away can become a prime cause of exactly what the idea itself is designed to prevent.

If some economist or philosopher does not do it first, I hope one of these days somebody writing publishing history will find it impossible to maintain the careful balance and strict adherence to the main stream of his story that characterizes Mr. Burlingame's account, but will find himself overcome with Shandean tendencies and will make large digressions in this direction. But whatever any future chronicler does, I have to make my bow to Scribner's. I have always known they were good publishers and I have suspected they were human beings. Among his many good stories Burlingame tells one that settles the matter for me. "C.S.," says Burlingame, "almost never fired anyone. Once he fired a cashier and the next morning the cashier came back to his desk as usual. 'He can't fire me,' the cashier said, 'I've been here twenty years.' It was true. In a House where business was so personal and loyalties so intertwined with all its detail, a man's very heartstrings, if there were such things, were twisted, after twenty years, around his chair. So the man kept coming back with his old nine-to-five fidelity until, ten years later, he died, comfortably, with his boots on. And C. S. just 'forgot' that he had fired him."

W. T. COUCH

University of Chicago Press

Bookbinding: Its Background and Technique. By EDITH DIEHL. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1946. 2 vols. Pp. xxii+256; vi+406. \$25.00.

In the preservation of the records of man's achievement the book has occupied a place of pre-eminence. The preservation of the book, which one might say is the most social of all the crafts, has been the privilege of the bookbinder. It often appears a contradiction that so ancient and important a craft should be so little known and appreciated save to those few who pursue it or to those whose interest in book development is paramount. Therefore it is with interest that we approach Edith Diehl's *Bookbinding: Its Background and Technique*.

In her work Miss Diehl has given the layman a panoramic view of her subject. She has covered the history of bookbinding, in a condensed form, in Volume I, while her second volume con-

cerns itself with the technique of her craft. Miss Diehl has written pleasantly and informally on a subject which is in need of much clarification. With considerable time and effort she has compiled a work which will serve as an anthology of books on bookbinding, and for those readers who desire such information the book will serve a purpose.

It is unfortunate, however, that a book such as this should be so expensive. The pecunious purchaser, in all probability, owns many of the works from which Miss Diehl drew her material and obtains little new information with his purchase. Most students and laymen who could use such an anthology will probably not be able to afford to own a copy of this work. In view of the author's earnest desire to have bookbinding known and respected the cost of her work is regrettable.

The most disappointing aspect of *Bookbinding: Its Background and Technique* is its lack of new material and of the verification of the source data. It supplies few answers to the question so frequently asked by librarians, bibliographers, and collectors. For instance: "How can we date and localize a binding by means of the craft techniques used, instead of by the usual, and superficial, dependence upon the style of decoration of the covers?"

Miss Diehl has leaned heavily upon the works of E. P. Goldschmidt and G. D. Hobson for her historical data, as she has upon Douglas Cockerell for her material on technique. She could hardly have selected three better guides. It is difficult to reconcile the assistance cited above with the acceptance of other opinions from sources poorly qualified. One has the impression that Miss Diehl has tried to please one and all by indiscriminately presenting all viewpoints. The vagueness in meaning which is repeatedly encountered in the author's work frequently gave this reviewer the impression that she garnered her material from her authorities and placed it in her book without completely comprehending the meaning of the words.

Some such explanation might account for her statement regarding signatures, to take one among many examples:

Signatures were purposely placed by the scribes on the outer edges of manuscripts at the foot of the page, so that they would be cut off during the process of binding. This was also the practice in early printed books and it accounts for the fact that so often no signatures are found on them, or when found, are sometimes partially cut off. [I, 168.]

Actually, up until 1472, books had manuscript signatures or had, as in the case of Mentelin's productions, the signatures stamped in. Some of the earliest Strassburg books had signatures printed close to the extreme edge of the leaf where they could be cut off (R. B. McKerrow, *Introduction to Bibliography*, 1928, pp. 73-76 and note). But as a rule the early printed books had their signatures printed immediately under their text. Had Miss Diehl studied her sources more carefully, she would probably have written instead of "early printed books," "books printed before 1472."

The illustrations in Volume I are well reproduced, but the selection is not very fortunate. The examples chosen are the already well-known and familiar styles of "Le Gascon," Badier, "Mearne," Payne, and Cockerell. Of the ninety-one plates in this volume, sixty-eight show bindings in the easily accessible New York Public Library and the J. Pierpont Morgan Library. Readers would have welcomed a more comprehensive selection to illustrate Miss Diehl's text. Within many collections, close to New York, can be found interesting examples of bindings which the author has discussed.

Volume II is devoted to the technique of binding and will be the more important for those interested in the various processes of hand-binding as well as for those who hope to learn to practice the craft or to improve their own technique. This volume is very well illustrated with clear and concise line drawings. Here again, however, Miss Diehl has set down information often at variance with her stated beliefs. Without a good deal of orthodox training and well-instilled ideals, this manual is not satisfactory for the apprentice, amateur, or ordinary layman. This might seem unduly harsh, but when one considers the influence some of Miss Diehl's statements and procedures might have on the preservation of books, the words "not satisfactory" seem necessary.

Such statements as "This type of binding is known as 'Flexible binding' for some strange reason, as it is the most inflexible binding produced" (II, 24), and, "Books which are printed on thick heavily sized paper and made up of thick sections will never open freely if they are flexibly sewn" (II, 117) are not true. However, if one follows her instructions for lining up the backs of her bindings (II, 175-78), it is clear why she makes these complaints about flexible sewing. After stating the evils of "sawing-in" when sewing for bindings (II,

111), the author not only uses this "evil" at her kettle stitches but doubly impresses her readers with an illustration (II, Fig. 60).

One of the surprising aspects of Miss Diehl's manual is her omission of many small though important details in her procedures. To take some very simple examples: in her instructions for cutting guarding strips (II, 37-52) many pages are devoted to such things as the holding of one's knife for cutting, the type of paper to be used, how this paper is folded, equipment needed, and the position of the worker, while no mention is made of the very important fact that the grain of the paper must run with the length of the strip. Again, she has omitted this same paramount requirement in her instructions for cutting the cover boards and lining papers (II, 106).

Miss Diehl writes (II, 142): "When the backing is finished it is a good practice to remove some of the glue and rub over the back with a piece of wood with a curved end. . . ." It is nothing less than astonishing to observe the lengthy descriptions the author has given comparatively unimportant procedures, and in these omitting the most important fact, while in treating this very necessary step, usually called "washing-up," she passes over it with a few inconsequential lines. Binders know that this "washing-up" operation is of great importance for two reasons: first, all the glue used at the time of rounding one's book should be removed, for with age this agent crystallizes, and the sharp particles cut the book at the fold as well as the sewing thread which is wrapped around the cords. (The only glue allowed to remain on a binding should be that very small amount used to set the head- and tailbands.) The second reason for carefully "washing up" is that in this process of removing the glue one can simultaneously smooth down those fields between the cords to a point where little or no lining of the back is necessary save at the head and tail fields where the threads of the headbands make an uneven surface. Lining the back of a book makes it stiffer and consequently harder to open. When the process is repeated two or three times, one achieves a very unpleasant volume.

The procedure in inlaying, if it appears in the book the way the author intended, is by no means proper (II, 356). This method, as it is explained, casts great doubt on the possibility of Miss Diehl's ever having used this technique. Here, too, she appears to have accepted a defi-

nition, misleadingly used by many booksellers, which is incorrect. She states: "this work is known as inlaying and the following directions are based on the second method of working which, though called "inlaying," is actually "overlaying" (II, 357).

That portion of Volume II which discusses rare books (II, 90-93) is dangerously inadequate. This would not be true if one were certain that the reader following Miss Diehl's advice had a vast knowledge of books coupled with discrimination and respect. It would, however, be most unfortunate if a binder not aware of rarity or of the need for the preservation of bibliographical evidence were to accept Miss Diehl's statements. For example, in her instructions for cutting and trimming a book before sewing (II, 90-91), she states:

It is true that a "real" deckle can easily be distinguished from a manufactured one, but, nevertheless, I am of the opinion that even real deckle edges have been held too sacred. . . . A matter that cannot be held too sacred, however, is cutting the edges of a book so that plenty of "proof" is left. . . . When a book has been pressed, it is ready to be cut at the head and have its edges trimmed before sewing, if the fore-edge and tail are to be left somewhat irregular and not cut smooth. . . . A book should never be cut smooth if it is a valuable one. "Cropping," that is cutting edges beyond the shortest "proof" sheet of a book, should never be done. . . . When the sheets are very irregular and possibly soiled, even though the edges are deckled, it is best to trim them slightly in order to clean them up and make them less ragged and unkempt in appearance. This should be done at both fore-edge and tail.

And again in the instructions for guarding illustrations (II, 46-47):

Illustrations are sometimes printed crookedly on the sheet and they should then be squared before guarding. . . . If the back edge has to be trimmed so that the sheet is much narrower than the text, the sheet can be mounted on a wide guard and set out to align with the fore-edge. . . . Some discrimination should be used in the trimming and squaring of plates to ensure their centering nicely, and it may be necessary to trim one edge rather generously in order to achieve this end.

The contradictions in the above quotations would certainly puzzle many a reader and almost definitely confuse the student. To this reviewer it seems probable that Miss Diehl is more interested in the "slick" appearance of the binding than in the preservation of the book it covers. In fact, the emphasis of the entire second volume is upon method rather than technique.

The lack of opportunity for economic security for the American binder, which Miss Diehl laments, is certainly an important point. The long years of training in the craft technique, the discrimination, judgment, and responsibility, as well as a complementary background in all the related fields of books and their production, do not bring adequate compensation at this period. It cannot go unsaid, however, that the good craftsman is partly to blame. He has made no great effort to pass on his skill and knowledge to all who might contribute toward the lifting of standards and the establishment of a genuine appreciation for his craft and its social significance. Binding is looked upon with some horror by a group of collectors and librarians. Although most members of these two groups are surprisingly uninformed on the craft of good binding and rarely genuinely interested, they still have grounds for their stand. One needs only look at the vast quantity of valuable books which have been ruined by binders, so called, whose approach to books was through the elaborate decoration of the covers or their own pay check. It is the task and obligation of every real binder who desires recognition and appreciation for his craft to lean militantly to the side of the book, its care, preservation, and respect. He needs to promote an appreciation for the binding itself, which is not the decoration of the covers.

Bookbinding: Its Background and Technique contains much good material, but this is too often placed between information which is either confusing, contradictory, or tied in too closely with the personal methods of its author. The majority of the readers of this work will not have background enough to extract those portions which are valuable. For a work announced by the publishers as "monumental," Edith Diehl's book is disappointing.

EDWARD MCLEAN

Folger Shakespeare Library

Rationaliseringen af de systematiske Kataloger i Universitetsbiblioteket i Nørre Allé. By JEAN ANKER. (Reprinted from *Meddelelser om Bibliotekets Virksomhed*, April 1, 1937—March 31, 1943.) København: Bianco Lunos Bogtrykkeri A/S, 1946. Pp. 51.

Systematisk Katalogisering ved Begrebsklassifikation og Emneregistrering. By JEAN ANKER. (Reprinted from *Nordisk Tidsskrift for Bøh- og Biblioteksvæsen*, Vol. XXXIII [1946].)

Uppsala: Almqvist & Wiksells Boktryckeri AB, 1946. Pp. [15].

These two pamphlets by the librarian of the Science Library of the University of Copenhagen deal essentially with the same subject: the principles underlying the classed catalog. The first considers the principles in relation to the specific needs of the Science Library. The second presents a generalization of the principles.

Logical and intelligent as is the author's exposition of the methodology of the classed catalog—or the systematic catalog, as he prefers to call it—American readers will presumably be more interested in the reasons that prompted the University of Copenhagen Library to adopt the special type of catalog the author describes. This assumption is strengthened by the fact that the catalog contains several features that reflect issues intensely discussed in American library literature.

When, in 1925, Svend Dahl, now "Rigsbibliotekar," became university librarian, he found the classed catalog of the Science Library hopelessly outmoded. Not merely was the terminology antiquated, but the structure of the catalog made any logical and consistent expansion cumbersome, if not impossible. Realizing that the difficulties he encountered would sooner or later beset any classification system, however ingenious, Dahl did some radical thinking. He found that the catalog apparatus dealt roughly with three different subject fields: the library's major fields of specialization, its minor subjects, and its auxiliary subjects. Dahl was aware that the old collection (i.e., the literature before 1900) in the major fields was likely to remain fairly static, since it would be increased chiefly through gifts rather than through purchases. As to the minor subjects and the auxiliary subjects, he anticipated that these subjects would not present insurmountable classification difficulties, since the material to be acquired in these fields would be greatly limited in quantity. The post-1900 literature in the library's major subject fields (the natural sciences and medicine) would, on the other hand, increase at an accelerated rate. Furthermore, because of the rapid progress of scientific research, this literature could not be arranged in accordance with the old classification schedules in use for pre-1900 literature. Dahl then made the significant decision to leave fairly intact the classification system for the pre-1900 literature in the li-

brary's major fields and for both the pre-1900 and the post-1900 literature in the minor and auxiliary fields, making only such adjustments as were imperative. For the post-1900 literature in the library's major fields, he decided, however, to devise an entirely new classification system.

This new classification system, which is to cover the literature of a seventy-year period, can consequently be designed in terms of the accumulated knowledge of the period it covers. About 1970 it will then be followed by a new series of schedules, which, in turn, will be based on the knowledge of what today is the future. Since most scientific research is concerned with contemporary sources, it is believed that no undue burden will be felt by having occasionally to use two—and eventually several—consecutive classed catalogs. In historical research, the approach is more frequently by author than by subject, and the library's general author catalog will in such cases be the logical tool to be used.

Svend Dahl's plan is now being carried out by the author of the pamphlets, Mr. Jean Anker. It is gratifying to know that a test will thereby, in some measure, be made of the idea of period classification which caused so much consternation (and by many was not taken quite seriously) when launched by John J. Lund and Mortimer Taube in their article, "A Non-expansive Classification System: An Introduction to Period Classification," appearing in the *Library Quarterly* (April, 1937).

The Copenhagen catalog is interesting also in several other respects. The second important decision made by the library administration called for a classed catalog (in loose-leaf form) rather than an alphabetical subject catalog on cards—not to say a dictionary catalog. This decision was apparently not preceded by much discussion or investigation. The superiority of the classed catalog over the alphabetical subject catalog was presumably taken for granted. The author says about this problem: "It seems quite obvious that it would not be worth while to make an alphabetical subject catalog. Such a catalog would blast the systematic relationship between concepts, scattering related concepts throughout the catalog. The subject catalog, furthermore, would swell to unmanageable proportions." He also points out the two main functions of the classed catalog: to orient the readers as to the materials available in the library in any particular field or in several related fields and to indicate the areas in which the li-

brary's holdings are weak. The latter function, which is not served by the dictionary catalog, is of considerable help in formulating a sound acquisition policy.

Three special features of the Copenhagen catalog should be noted. First, it does not provide simply for a classification of books; it provides for a classification of the contents of books. This means that a book is classified in more than one place in the system if the contents call for it. Thus a book like *The Autonomic Nervous System* is entered under the appropriate subdivisions of both anatomy and physiology. Second, the classed catalog is in no way to serve as a shelflist. For reasons of economy, and since few, if any, readers have access to the stacks, the books are arranged on the shelves in much broader groups than those used in the classed catalog, which is more minutely subdivided than the shelflist. Third, the catalog is supplemented by an alphabetical subject index.

The special character of the Copenhagen catalog would seem to make it virtually immune to the severe criticism of "classification as a finding tool" engaged in with such fervor by Miss Kelley in her dissertation, *The Classification of Books* (New York, 1937). It will be recalled that Miss Kelley was concerned primarily with showing that the classified arrangement of books on the shelves is not sufficient for the location of materials. She found in her study "that on an average, three times as many titles on specific subjects can be traced under the subject in the dictionary catalog as can be found by direct consultation of the shelves" (p. 126). However, as has already been pointed out, the Copenhagen system does not advocate, indeed does not even make possible, the location of materials through consultation of the shelves, but through consultation of the classed catalog with its multiple entries. Even the classification system Miss Kelley examined provided under the appropriate class numbers twice as many titles (including the analytical ones) as did the shelves. Since the Copenhagen catalog presumably is much more liberal with regard to multiple entries than are the classification systems of Miss Kelley's study, the percentage of titles that may be located in the Copenhagen catalog should be considerably higher.

In addition, the administration of the University of Copenhagen Library considers it an obligation to instruct its clientele in the construction and use of the classed catalog. The pamphlets under review have been written in part for that purpose. As a result, the library's

readers may be expected to understand that, in a classed catalog, material on a special subject must be looked for not merely under the specific heading with which the subject is identified but also under the broader class of which the specific heading is a subdivision.

The development of the Copenhagen catalog should be watched with keen attention by American librarians. In summary, this catalog deviates in three important respects from the usual American catalog.

First, the Copenhagen catalog is a period catalog, to be continued by a new period catalog when it approaches obsolescence. Our catalog, on the other hand, is an expansive "permanent" catalog, subject to constant, eventually drastic, revision, as obsolete features become apparent.

Second, the Copenhagen catalog is a classed catalog, supplemented by an author catalog. Our catalog, on the other hand, is a dictionary catalog, or (when we split the dictionary catalog) an alphabetical subject catalog, supplemented by an author-title catalog.

Third, the Copenhagen catalog is the embodiment of a classification system more detailed than the shelflist, designed to be used by the public and making it unnecessary to consult the shelves, on which the books therefore can be arranged in a compact, space-saving manner. Our shelflist (usually our nearest approach to a classed catalog), on the other hand, is frequently not available to the public and is used primarily as a working tool through which books are arranged on the shelves in minute, space-consuming subdivisions—although in most research libraries we admit only a small portion of the public to the stacks.

The Copenhagen catalog is a challenge to American librarianship. I hope we shall not let this challenge pass unheeded.

JENS NYHOLM

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National Library System—A Plan for India. By S. R. RANGANATHAN. ("Library Science in India," No. 1.) Lahore: *Indian Librarian*, 1946. Pp. 46. Rs. 1-8.

Rao Sahib Ranganathan, long-time president of the Indian Library Association, former librarian of the University of Madras, now of Benares Hindu University, and originator of the Colon classification, has in recent years become the spokesman for a national system of libraries for India. The booklet under review is a further

development of his *Post-war Reconstruction of Libraries in India* published by the Punjab Library Association in 1944. He speaks with authority and often with wisdom.

The Imperial Library in Calcutta, under the guidance of Khan Bahadur Asadullah, performs some, but by no means all, of the functions of a national library. Khan Bahadur retires this year. It will be interesting to watch the further development of this library. Rao Sahib Ranganathan attacks the problem of library service on a national scale by proposing a national central library concerned with problems of copyright, bibliographical service on a wide scale, reference service, interlibrary loan both national and international, exchanges, and books for the blind. In his 1944 pamphlet he tentatively raised the question of transferring the Imperial Library to the seat of the central government as against leaving it in Calcutta to function as the regional library for Bengal. In the current publication his basic book stock of books on India is partially made up of material transferred from India Office, London, and copyright deposit copies from the British Museum and the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, and the registrars of books of the different provinces in India. He appropriately closes this section of the publication with, "When will this vision become a reality?"

The national library as proposed by Ranganathan has tied to it a system of regional, academic, research, and business libraries. This network includes rural library service with book vans serving the petty hamlets. District central libraries, municipal, regional, and provincial central libraries are all linked to the national central library.

Academic libraries include school libraries, university and college libraries, and research libraries. In the earlier publication the author stated: "There is no need for the time being to attach the children's departments to a public library system as is done in the West." Apparently, his thinking in this direction has not changed for, except through school libraries, service to children is not mentioned. If our experience in the West is valid for the East, there are advantages in developing the habitual use of public libraries in earlier years in order to accustom the users to utilizing them for further educational as well as recreational reading. This factor may be of even greater importance in a country like India, where the literacy rate is exceedingly low and where literacy once gained is not maintained. Many of the universities in

India are teaching institutions only at the graduate level. First degrees are granted by the universities for work done at member colleges. Here is an opportunity for the university authorities to set library standards, not only for the university itself but also for the libraries of its constituent colleges. The author proposes to achieve this through a council of libraries. He does not, however, suggest a union catalog of university and college holdings, or co-operative buying and storage. There is already existent in India the nucleus for the remaining type of academic library, namely, research libraries. These include the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore; the Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi; Bandarkar Oriental Institute, Poona; the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal and its Bombay branch; scientific libraries of the national societies of mathematics, chemistry, botany, and economics; government libraries in the fields of education, geology, zoölogy, and archeology. All these, and others like them, now supported on a national or provincial scale, would come within the national plan.

Business libraries already exist in a number of instances and promise to multiply. As India becomes an important factor in world trade and production, it will become increasingly important that its leaders have access to publications in the field of business and technology. A still bigger problem is to make these materials readily available to the increasing number of young men and women who are the future leaders of India. Ranganathan's chain of business libraries may do this. Or, strong departments of business, technology, and public affairs in municipal public libraries in the larger centers may eventually assume this role. Meanwhile, India is sending large numbers of students abroad for technical study. These young people return to India moderately well informed as of 1947. With low salaries inevitable it will be impossible for them to continue to be well informed in their specialties unless Indian libraries are strengthened very promptly.

Government libraries on a departmental level are also considered. Here there is already a degree of duplication, in the field of education, for example. Here, also, there is some practical planning already underway, notably in the field of medicine, where co-ordination of medical library service throughout India is proposed. Ranganathan proposes vigorous service on the part of department library personnel, charging them with the responsibility of furnishing information in anticipation of need. Rather than

printing the truncated department library catalogs, he proposes a cumulative union catalog of all department libraries.

How far has India progressed toward achieving this visionary plan? Not very far. Perhaps 1 per cent of its total population has access to libraries. That libraries can be developed and used has been demonstrated in the state of Baroda. Aside from expense estimated at \$80,000,000 per year (exclusive of capital expenditure?) there is also the vital question of trained library personnel. In 1944, Ranganathan estimated this as forty thousand. In 1946 his estimate is one hundred thousand with an annual recruitment of three thousand trained librarians. Punjab, Madras, Benares, Bombay, and Calcutta universities are now training a very small number of librarians. Librarianship will have to become a more dignified and lucrative profession to attract the right kind of personnel. The average salary proposed, of \$166 per year, will not do that, even in a land where living costs are low. The basic book stock already existing in India is not known. Unfortunately, the author still uses the figures found in the 1938 *Directory of Indian Libraries*. Nearly double the number of libraries supplied information for the second edition published in 1944. Even so, holdings are still pitifully small. There is no public library act for any province or state, except Baroda. Library co-operation has barely begun. Microfilm and photostat service is virtually unknown. There is great desire on the part of thousands, if not millions, of persons in India to better themselves, to keep informed of national and international events. Perhaps the new government will attack the problems of libraries quickly and boldly. A practical beginning needs to be made. One step might be to pass a far-sighted and effective copyright bill with provision for a central copyright library. Perhaps the young students now going abroad in sizable numbers will be so vocal in their demands for better library service that Rao Sahib Ranganathan's vision of a national central library with six million volumes and a network of libraries throughout India will become a reality. Who knows? India faces many problems, not the least is illiteracy. Libraries are suitable agencies to help correct this deficiency. Out of bold dreams may come reality.

FLORA B. LUDINGTON

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A Report on the Mary Reed Library. By LOUIS R. WILSON. Denver: University of Denver, 1947. Pp. 18.

This is the report of a quick survey of the University of Denver libraries undertaken by Mr. Wilson during the autumn of 1946, upon invitation of Chancellor Gates of the University. It is a much less exhaustive and detailed study than the full-length A.L.A. sponsored surveys, of which we have had a considerable number in recent years, and in most of which Mr. Wilson has participated. Nevertheless, the familiar ingredients of the larger reports—library budget in relation to student enrolment and total university budget, integration with the teaching and research process of what the library does and should do, budgetary allocations in the chief categories of expenditures, allotments for books and periodical purchases, status and condition of the book stock, adequacy and requirements of the building—all these and other factors are encompassed in these brief eighteen pages. One can surmise that under the author's practiced hand the present analysis and study of a situation considerably less complex than that of some of the libraries he has surveyed elsewhere must have fallen rather readily together.

One of the most interesting facts brought out by this pamphlet is the booming prosperity of the university, which has leaped from a total budget of \$863,000 in 1944-45 to \$3,000,000 in 1946-47. This financial tripling has been accompanied by an increase from 5,213 students in the earlier year to 7,200 in the fall of 1946. This undoubtedly reflects the high G.I. enrolments that are now filling classrooms and libraries to the bursting point from one end of the nation to the other and which also, fortunately, are pouring funds in unprecedented quantities into institutional coffers, and usually also into library budgets.

That this has happened at Denver is shown by a total library budget of \$47,673 in 1944-45, when it should have been \$130,325 according to Mr. Wilson, to \$145,476 in 1946-47, as compared with a recommended \$180,000. It is interesting to note, however, that under the lower university budget the library, with 5.40 per cent, was sharing more generously in the total institutional income than it was under its much more satisfactory budget in 1946-47, when it received 4.84 per cent of the total funds available. At the lower 1946-47 percentage, however, the library was considerably nearer the budget

Mr. Wilson deems desirable than it was in 1944-45. This discrepancy seems to suggest that some way of correlating budgets based on expenditures per student enrolled and those based on a percentage of the total budget is needed. This is emphasized by the fact that 7 per cent of the total institutional income, which Mr. Wilson accepts as a desirable standard, would, for 1946-47, have given the library a total budget of \$210,000, as compared with the \$180,000 he recommends on the basis of the widely accepted \$25 per student enrolled. Conversely, in 1944-45, 7 per cent would have given the library a budget of only \$58,410, in comparison with the \$130,325 Mr. Wilson says it should have had. Widely fluctuating standards such as these certainly do not seem compatible.

At only one point does Mr. Wilson take sharp exception to administrative practices in the library. This is the policy, as of the time of the survey, of making no departmental allocations of book funds but of allowing all departments to place orders at the beginning of the year for materials as needed. Mr. Wilson strongly urges that carefully computed departmental allocations be made to replace this very fluid arrangement because, "under the present method the element of serious planning over a period of years is all but impossible." Most library administrators will probably agree with this statement. The policy followed at Denver, however, granting a competent library staff, can be defended with considerable logic and some demonstrations of successful practice, as a quick means of bringing a library, where the building of research resources has been followed on a very meager scale, as has been true at Denver, quickly up to stronger status. Particularly in the present unsettled state of the book markets and with many newly rich libraries scrambling for available materials, it may be necessary for libraries to buy where, when, and as books are available without too much concern over nicely balancing expenditures according to a predetermined plan.

One factor which could be mentioned only briefly in this study, and which undoubtedly would have been given considerable stress in a more extensive presentation, is the extent to which library resources in Denver and throughout the Rocky Mountain area generally have been and can be co-ordinated through the work of the Rocky Mountain Bibliographical Center located in the Denver Public Library. Here is an agency through which all the libraries of the

area can, with some careful planning, make much more effective use of available book and periodical funds, to their mutual advantage, than they can by developing entirely independent programs, no matter how well financed.

Every library administrator who reads and uses this report will certainly agree with Chancellor Gates that it is an able and constructive document. We would, of course, expect nothing less from Mr. Wilson. With a report such as this, subscribed to by the chancellor and accepted by him as a challenge, with the university libraries under the direction of highly competent librarians, as they are, and with the university generally in prosperous financial condition, the future of its libraries seems bright indeed. We can fully expect developments and growth in the libraries which will materially contribute to the present healthy trend toward a shifting of America's bibliographical center of gravity westward.

WILLIAM H. CARLSON

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The Yale Collections. By WILMARTH S. LEWIS, for the UNIVERSITY COUNCIL ON THE LIBRARY AND MUSEUMS. New Haven: Yale University Press; London: G. Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1946. Pp. 54. \$2.00.

The Yale Library is reported to have begun in 1701 with some forty books presented by ten Congregational clergymen. The doors through which traditionally they passed into Pastor Russel's house in Branford with their gift "for the founding of a college in this Colony," are the same by which the visitor now enters the "1742" replica room in the Sterling Memorial Library. This beautiful modern Gothic building, the largest university library structure in the world, today houses over 2,500,000 volumes, about two-thirds of the total number in the several libraries—there are forty-two others—of Yale. More space for books will be needed in twenty years; the number has doubled every sixteen years since 1843.

In half a hundred beautifully composed and succinct pages Mr. Wilmarth S. Lewis, chairman of the Yale University Council on the Library and Museums, has sketched the great collections which are the basis and the glory of the Yale Library. Mr. Lewis speaks as "we"; the book was a co-operative undertaking of the Council. In his conclusion the author accounts

for the extreme condensation of the work as due to the Council's anxiety lest they impose "museum fatigue" upon their readers. This reader regrets their solicitude and would have welcomed twice the length for this delightful combination of guidebook and history.

Great university libraries are due in very large part to individual donors, and Mr. Lewis, himself a well-known collector, is at some pains to point out that posterity is kind to collectors. The names of a long succession of men of letters, scholars, artists, and scientists are here set down in tribute to the books, pictures, and specimens which they lovingly gathered and gave to make the Yale Collections rich among the treasure houses of the world. Four chapters treat in turn the Library, the Art Gallery, the Peabody Museum, and the Anthropology Museum, giving the history of each in brief outline, interspersed with comment and anecdote of a charmingly bibliophilic flavor. There are a dozen handsome full-page illustrations of buildings, special rooms, portraits, and facsimiles. Officers and curators of the various libraries, museums, and collections and the officers and trustees of the Associates are named in the Appendixes.

The Library, begun with a gift, now holds the gifts of many generations. Its first separate home, the present Dwight Hall and Chapel, was constructed in 1843 on funds contributed by alumni efforts. Two undergraduate literary societies of 1753 and 1768, Linonia and Brothers in Unity, collected books of their own for a century, then gave them to the College. (The Library into the present century was known to Yale undergraduates as "Ligoleum and Brothers.") The new library building, given as a memorial to John W. Sterling, "64," was opened in 1930. Its most famous collection is of English literature, a superb supplement and background to the separately housed library of the Elizabethan Club, which possesses, among other treasures, the first four Shakespeare folios. In the Sterling Library the Rare Book Room holds over 100,000 volumes from Caxton to the present. Among other notable collections are the Aldis gift of the Yale Collection of American Literature, the William S. Mason gift of the Benjamin Franklin Collection, the William Robertson Coe Collection of Western Americana, the Speck Collection of Goetheana, the sporting books and prints of the Wagstaff and Sheldon-Garvan Collections, the Fisher Collection of playing cards. The Historical Library of the Medical School, one of the great medical libraries of the world, was created with a gift by

Dr. Harvey Cushing and others in 1939, and to house it, a wing was built on the Medical School. The second floor holds the Streeter Museum of Weights and Measures and a pharmaceutical collection given by the same enthusiastic donor.

The Art Gallery, which started with contemporary portraits hung in various halls in the early eighteenth century, has had three homes—the neoclassical Trumbull Gallery of 1831, built to house John Trumbull's famous Revolutionary pictures; the Street School of Fine Arts, 1866, which brought to Yale one of its greatest prizes, the Jarves Collection of early Italian paintings; and the Harkness Gallery, which now holds these collections and many others. Fine print collections are in the gallery itself and in other appropriate spots; the Whitney Collection of Sporting Art is in the Payne Whitney Gymnasium. A notable collection is of ancient art, Assyrian, Egyptian, Greek, and the recently acquired Mithraeum and early Christian Chapel from the site of Dura in Syria.

The chapter on the Peabody Museum is a fascinating romance, from Benjamin Silliman's "candlebox" of specimens in 1800, through the pioneer paleontological collections made by O.C. Marsh in the untouched Jurassic fields of the West, to Yale's present supremacy in spiders. The final chapter describes the large and important but as yet undeveloped collections in anthropology, which President Ezra Stiles began in 1788 with Indian relics and which now, in the catalog book of specimens, number 140,000, each number in many cases representing several hundred arrow heads, potsherds, baskets, or other class of material remains. They are in three divisions: physical anthropology, archeology, and ethnology; and are still stored wherever a corner can be found, in boxes, in basements. Less than 10 per cent can be displayed in the Peabody Museum. Yale and the Associates hope that someday this condition will be remedied. It would not be beyond possibility that the publication of the *Yale Collections* might inspire some new donor to lend his name to posterity.

LUTHER H. EVANS

Library of Congress

Arsenals of a Democratic Culture: A Social History of the American Public Library Movement in New England and the Middle States from 1850 to 1900. By SIDNEY DITZION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. xiii+263. \$5.00.

American library history has been neglected by librarians and by historians, and the number of first-class studies of the growth of the institution in the United States or of the development of single libraries is pitifully small. Every substantial addition to this body of literature is most welcome, and Dr. Ditzion's volume is notable for substance. His twelve compact chapters are buttressed by a 21-page bibliography and by 636 notes which fill 41 pages of small type. Many of the notes cite a number of publications, and every reader of this history of the public library movement in New England and in the Middle Atlantic states from 1850 to 1900 will be satisfied that the author left few stones unturned in his investigations.

The text describes the cultural foundation of the American public library, the slow transition from private to public libraries in New England, the political and social backgrounds of the institution, the role of public libraries in mass education, the influence of humanitarian reforms and the participation of labor in the public library movement, philanthropy, and the professional contributions of librarians. The thesis of the work is stated in the last sentence: "Both the institution and its methods were conceived . . . as a contribution toward the self-realization of the broad masses of the people" (p. 193).

A regrettable omission in this study is the absence of a chapter on the materials in nineteenth-century American libraries. There is a brief discussion of librarians as purveyors of fiction, but practically nothing is said about the contents of the various collections. A library history which does not discuss books reminds me of a comment an outstanding historian is said to have made about a volume on Western history, "Here is the West without cows."

Arsenals of a Democratic Culture is not easy reading; the narrative is obscure, and there is very little of the human element which makes history a consuming study. Dr. Ditzion's preoccupation with social forces is reflected in phrases like "social causation," "multiple motivation," and "psycho-biographical," and in labored sentences such as, "We observe in the ideological pattern of the library movement that an urban industrial configuration, with the social dislocations it engendered, was necessary to the growth of this new community service" (p. 29). His pages are marred by too frequent use of dashes and by unhappy rhetorical practices like the following: "How handsome was financial support for free public schools! How

small the sum needed for free libraries! How could you then sow the seeds of knowledge only to allow the infant plants to die for want of nutriment?" (p. 85).

Unquestionably, American librarians are indebted to Dr. Ditzion for his thorough inquiry into the development of their institution. His volume is a substantial contribution to our knowledge of the subject, and I shall be delighted if the book will, as Professor Curti says in the Foreword, "interest the professional librarian" and "appeal to all students of American civilization."

LESLIE W. DUNLAP

Library of Congress

The First Century of the John Carter Brown Library: A History with a Guide to the Collection.
By LAWRENCE C. WROTH. Providence, R.I.: Associates of the John Carter Brown Library, 1946. Pp. vi+88. \$5.00.

An American visitor to one of the Oxford colleges once inquired of the gardener, "How do you get your lawns to look like that?" "Well, sir," responded the latter, "we rolls 'em and we mows 'em—for five hundred years." Mr. Wroth entitled his volume *The First Century of the John Carter Brown Library* and then suggested on the first page of text that the library is entering upon its third century.

Many a great library has a history older than its public or semipublic existence. Many great libraries are made from far older great libraries. But here is one with which the same name has been associated for a long time—for several generations. It is also one of that growing number of institutions in the United States which seem to defy classifiers in the *American Library Directory*.

"Thirty thousand volumes"—it is a small place! "American history before 1800?" No use looking there for the history of the Republican party—or the career of John L. Lewis. Of what use is it? The John Carter Brown is a library wherein may be documented the beginning of things in America—North, South, and Central. That is enough reason for its existence. Remember Archibald MacLeish's statement? "Librarians no longer torture themselves with an imaginary completeness which no library ever has or ever will attain." The John Carter Brown has been doing a job within definite chronologic limits—and has succeeded in a manner which is more than merely noteworthy.

"History," as interpreted by the collectors

at the John Carter Brown, would puzzle folk who do not always understand that anything which has happened may be history. The old conception of history as "past politics" never seems to have affected the managers of this library of "American history." Geography, linguistics, economics, literature, travel, and a thousand other subjects are also history. The emphasis laid by the present librarian on printing, typography, navigation, and cartography would puzzle the layman who still thinks of history in terms of the behavior of man as a political animal.

One statement by Mr. Wroth deserves reprinting in verbatim, for it is a lucid exposition of the John Carter Brown attitude toward history.

A distinguished American historian once remarked that the John Carter Brown Library was of little use to him because it had no division devoted to materials for the study of economic history. It was a pleasure to instruct him. He was assured at once that there were at least five thousand printed pieces in the Library which had bearing upon the economic history of Europe and America. We made it clear that there were good reasons for the absence from our classification scheme of any section headed Economics. Economics, in our conception, is not a thing in itself, but a thread that runs through all historical action and development. It is only by making a cross section of the history of a place or period that its economic aspects take their proper place in the structure, and it is only by a similar study of our various collections that we arrive at some notion of the extraordinary strength of the Library in economic history.

Mr. Wroth's book appeals to collectors and connoisseurs, but it should be a "must" for all reference librarians whose daily task it is to point investigators to sources for which most present systems of library subject classification seem as yet inadequate. This excellent volume should take its place as a model for future studies of its sort. It is part of a trend toward explaining special libraries and should be remembered along with the fine series of shorter pieces on American historical libraries published in the *William and Mary Quarterly*.

RANDOLPH G. ADAMS

Clements Library
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Special Library Resources. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1941-47. 4 vols. \$29.10.

The impetus given to research by World War II continues, not only in the scientific and

technical fields but also in the social sciences. Co-operative efforts by librarians to make the growing mass of research literature available likewise have increased in the past few years: the surveys by Robert B. Downs, the establishment of bibliographic centers, the union lists, and many bibliographies giving location of items. One of the most valuable records, not covered by other types of publications, is *Special Library Resources*.

Although it claims not to be a directory, it serves as a guide to resources by area, since the arrangement of libraries listed is by state and city. In spite of rapid communication, the factor of discovering resources in a given area is important, particularly when the bulk of materials to be consulted is large. Whereas directories, such as the excellent *American Library Directory*, serve as guides to the location of valuable information in general libraries, and in special collections, they do not attempt to cover special libraries; hence complement rather than duplicate the data given in the present volumes.

The variety of information available, as well as the range of organizations represented, are revealed in the Index volume. However excellent this Index is, it fails to indicate some of the data found in individual descriptions, such as specialists available in the organizations, translators, special indexes compiled, and the names of special collections. But through the Subject Index these data can readily be found in the descriptions of individual libraries. The real value of the work lies in the location of sources of information important to the scholar and to the research worker—sources which might not otherwise be discovered except through lengthy search.

WALTER HAUSDORFER

Sullivan Memorial Library
Temple University
Philadelphia

Ulrich's Periodicals Directory: A Classified Guide to a Selected List of Current Periodicals, Foreign and Domestic. Edited by CAROLYN F. ULRICH. 5th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1947. Pp. x+399. \$15.00.

The appearance of a new edition of a standard reference work is (as it obviously should be) an occasion for relief and satisfaction. Certainly the public which, contrary to popular belief, includes persons engaged in the profession of librarianship, are under particularly heavy obligations to Miss Ulrich, formerly chief of the

Periodicals Division of the New York Public Library, for her valiant and generally successful efforts to tame the most refractory form of literature to a point of domestic usefulness. She has done it before. She has done it again.

Miss Ulrich explains in the Preface to this fifth, or "postwar" edition, signed in August, 1946, that emphasis has been placed "on the publications of North and South America and the British Empire because information from these countries was more readily available." On the other hand, "when, from any country, a foreign magazine of 1944 or later has been found, it has been included." Actually, these exceptional "foreign" magazines are few and far between; there is a handful of titles from eastern Europe, notably the journals of the *Akademia nauk SSSR*; there are scatterings from France; Germany is almost without representation; occasionally a Scandinavian serial makes an appearance; whereas the press of the Low Countries seems conspicuous by comparison with its neighbors. These lacunae are attributed to the "paper shortage, irregularities of issue, delays in transportation and lack of communication, caused by a still unsettled world," which only goes to show that the late war is not yet sufficiently "post" to meet the requirements of even the most energetic and gifted bibliographer.

Because of the "exhaustive treatment of current bibliography now covered by the *Bibliographic Index*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company," the practice of recording bibliographies following each subject group has been discontinued.

As in the case of its predecessors the objective of this version of the *Periodicals Directory* is "to present a selective labor-saving guide to current periodical material." The fact is declared at the outset—a fact, by the way, which the user should bear in mind—that "the list does not aim to be exhaustive, and no attempt at evaluation has been made." Moreover, no consideration is given to annuals, monographs, books in parts, and series publications in general. The titles are arranged in accordance with a broad classification, and within it the alphabetical plan, adopted in the earlier editions, is followed. For the reason that "a periodical may serve one or more purposes or may differ in the treatment of its contents from others on the same subject, the same periodical may be found listed under more than one subject."

The observance of this convention results in the duplication of full entries and provides one of the distinguishing characteristics of the work.

Many publications are completely recorded twice, and about threescore pop up three or more times. The effect gives a popularity, hardly less than eccentric, to some, while others equally worthy of respect are forced into the ignominy of solitary appearances. Thus the *Inter-Continental Press Guide*, published in Havana, is severally entered under general bibliography, general periodicals (Central America), general periodicals (Mexico), general periodicals (South America), and general periodicals (West Indies). Such distinction is entirely consistent with the strivings for hemispheric solidarity but is expensive in terms of lineage and makes one wonder wistfully whatever became of the time-honored, albeit annoying, habit of the cross-reference.

Typical of the many-headed magazines are those which combine the possible pleasures of the hearth with the attractions of the back yard. For example, *Canadian Homes and Gardens* (Toronto), *Homes and Gardens* (London), *Casas y Jardines* (Buenos Aires), *House and Garden* (Boston), and *House Beautiful* (New York) show up under architecture, gardening, and interior decoration, while nationalist pride is swelled by *Better Homes and Gardens* (Des Moines), which claims not only all these iterations but scores with home economics as well.

The absence of *Notes* from the Music section is unfortunate but serves to accent the fact that any selective compilation is likely to overlook some work of genuine value.

An idiosyncrasy is the somewhat elaborate precautions which have been taken to protect the reader from deliberately suspecting the good faith of a title. This is accomplished by a word or a phrase, sometimes printed in italics, at the end of an entry. An illustration of this redundant whimsy is afforded by three periodicals in the "Bakers and Confectioners" section, for at the end of the entries for *Ice Cream Field*, *Ice Cream Industry*, and *Ice Cream Review* is placed the explanatory note: "*ice cream*." Thus one is saved the bother of taking anything for granted.

Another helpful expedient is the key to abbreviations on pages ix to x; for example, "abstr." for "abstracts," "bibl." for "bibliographies," and "mkt." for "markets and prices," but it is surprising to find that it includes "maps" for "maps" and "index" for "index."

The organization of the material is described in the following prefatory paragraph:

The method of compilation has been to secure data from the latest issue available, recording its title, subtitle, supplements, date of origin, frequency,

price, size, publisher, place of publication, annual index, cumulative indexes and such items as are characteristic of each periodical. Information concerning indexing and abstracting services is entered. . . . No claim is made for accuracy in recording all periodicals indexed or abstracted as many services do not print or keep up to date their lists of periodicals covered and the study of entire current volume has not been possible in all cases.

Altogether there are approximately seventy-five hundred entries. All kinds of periodicals are represented: trade publications, the transactions of learned societies, documents, and a sprinkling of the foreign-language press in the United States. There are even a number of serials described as "house organs," but somehow the *Book-of-the-Month Club News* and *Wings*, the Literary Guild Review, have escaped that denomination although it is applied to Baker and Taylor's *Retail Bookseller*.

Miss Adrienne Florence Muzzy, formerly head of the Serials Section, Acquisition Division, New York Public Library, has supplied an excellent list of clandestine periodicals published during the war. Miss Muzzy makes gracious acknowledgment to the administration of the New York Public Library for permission to use its collection of clandestine material and to Mr. H. S. Parsons, chief of the Serials Division of the Library of Congress for permission to examine the War Agencies Collection. She has provided a record of source materials basic to the study of the resistance movement in the occupied countries.

The imperfections of this new edition are generally of little importance. The misprints (e.g., pp. 25, 70, [329]) which have escaped the vigilance of the proofreader are of no real consequence. The Index, which tolerates an occasional cross-reference but completes the citation in every instance, is detailed and exact. Miss Ulrich has, with marked and undisputed diligence, produced "a basic reference tool and a guide for purchase" which will prove indispensable to libraries large and small, public and special, comprehensive and exclusive. We owe her profound gratitude.

DAVID C. MEARNS

Reference Department
Library of Congress

Quarterly Bulletin of the South African Library, Vol. I, No. 1 (September, 1946). Edited by D. H. VARLEY; published by the South African Library, Cape Town. Pp. 28. Annual subscription, \$1.00; single copies, \$0.30.

The aims of the new quarterly of the South African Library are described in the first issue as:

firstly, to publish notes, original articles and bibliographies about the wealth of printed and manuscript material in the South African Library, both of general and Africana interest; secondly, to print or reprint works (or parts of works) in the Library that are not easily accessible; thirdly, to describe new acquisitions of interest, and draw attention to gaps in the Library's collections that should be filled; and lastly, to record the output of South African literature of all kinds, in all languages.

The *Quarterly Bulletin*, therefore, takes its place with the rapidly growing number of journals designed primarily to publicize the resources of individual libraries.

Scholarly as well as popular libraries apparently are recognizing more and more an obligation to make more generally known the nature and extent of their collections. The South African Library is among the smaller national libraries, but in its special fields, particularly Afrikaans and the history of South Africa, it probably holds the most important collections in the world. The paucity of information that is readily available about the library and its holdings more than justifies the publication of a journal of this type.

In the first issue the main article is a contribution to the history of early printing in South Africa. The author, who is also the editor of the *Quarterly* and the librarian of the South African Library, has thoroughly studied a pamphlet, recently acquired by the library, which he claims is the only known copy of the first book printed in South Africa. The article is carefully done and is an important addition to the literature of the subject.

Most of the remaining pages of the first issue are devoted to bibliographies: a supplement to Robinson's *Hand-list of South African Periodicals*, which brings that publication up to date as of August 1, 1946; a list of books added to the Africana collection of the South African Library; and a list of government publications of the Union of South Africa. Bibliographical information is detailed. All these lists, especially if they continue to be regular features of the *Quarterly*, constitute a valuable addition to the rather inadequate national bibliography of South Africa.

The leading article and most of the rest of the first issue are in English, but material in both English and Afrikaans is planned for future numbers. The format of the periodical is

modest, but both paper and typography are satisfactory.

LEWIS F. STIEG

*Graduate School of Library Science
University of Southern California*

State-Local Relations: Report of the Committee on State-Local Relations. Issued by the COUNCIL OF STATE GOVERNMENTS. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1946. Pp. xvi+228. \$3.50.

Of all the aspects of government and public administration, the area of state-local relations is one of the most important and most troubled. And of all the writings on the subject, this is one of the best and most valuable. In a relatively few pages this report reviews a complex and varied scene and presents logical, clear-cut, and practical recommendations.

The relations of states to local governments are important because the latter are the complete creatures of the former, and yet the latter perform even more functions for the citizen than the former. Local governments together spend almost twice as much as do state governments. The relations of states to local governments are troubled because the historical conditions out of which came our present system of state-local relationships have so radically altered that far-reaching changes in those relationships have had to be made. The two main changes that have been made and are likely to be carried further are (1) redistribution of tax income through grants-in-aid and (2) increased state supervision over local governments.

This report is one of the best writings on the subject because it succinctly summarizes the available data, covering the many facets of the subject and also the differing situations in the various states. This report is one of the most valuable writings on the subject because it comes from an association of state governments and presumably reflects to some degree the thinking of at least the more progressive states. It is encouraging therefore to read the recommendations of the report for the improvement of state-local relations.

These recommendations can be summarized in four broad statements around which the body of the report is built. The first is that the states should grant a greater degree of discretionary power to the local governments. One of the best sections of the report reviews the sorry history of special and local legislation by the states and

the rise of general, optional laws and of home rule. Though recognizing that home rule raises problems as well as settles them (e.g., What are "municipal affairs"?), the report plumps unequivocally for home rule as "one satisfactory solution to the problems of state-local legal relations."

A second main recommendation is that the states should balance this grant of home rule with increased administrative supervision. Administrative supervision instead of legislative control promises to be more flexible, more effective, and of greater positive value to the local governments (a consideration that is often overlooked). The agency for this supervision should be competent to handle all aspects of local government (the state that comes nearest to this goal is New Jersey, with its Division of Local Government), or at least all aspects of any one function. Administrative supervision, the report explains, should employ the persuasive devices of supervision primarily and use directives and regulatory powers for emergencies and for the enforcement of minimum standards.

The third principal recommendation is to the effect that the states should assist the local governments to secure more adequate and more stable tax revenues. In this crucial area of finances, the report presents a masterly analysis of the limitations of the property tax, both those that are inherent and those that are circumstantial, and concludes that at best the property tax will be insufficient. Some aid can be had from local nonproperty taxes, from improved practices in handling bond issues, in the accumulation of surplus funds, and in shared taxes. But essentially and inevitably the main relief will have to come from grants-in-aid. These should be used to maintain minimum standards and to eliminate uneconomic units of government. And the report comes out for some use of outright grants in addition to the traditional type of matching grant.

The fourth main recommendation is that the states should encourage the consolidation of local government units. This is the weakest section of the report, simply because there appears to be no solution that is at the same time effective and practical. Though a number of techniques of minor importance are suggested, functional consolidation is admitted to be the most likely avenue of future development though "functional consolidation cannot be considered a permanent solution to the rationalization of local areas."

In all of this report the implications for li-

braries are evident. The report considers, for example, the place of the independent school board in local government and concludes that their integration is desirable, at least in the long run. Public libraries, too, are in effect part of local government, and, if this report is correct in tracing the patterns of future relations between the states and local governments, librarians would do well to study their place in that evolving system.

HERBERT GOLDHOR

University of Illinois Library School

Reports of Officers for the Fiscal Year Ended September 30, 1946. Issued by the CARNEGIE CORPORATION of NEW YORK. New York: The Corporation, 1946. Pp. 90.

These reports, of which those of the president and secretary are of great interest, should arrest the attention of all educators (including librarians). The president of the Carnegie Corporation has directed his report to a specific group of people—"the recipients, present and future, of the income of this fund. It is written to inform them. We hope always to be conscious of the dependence of the Corporation upon this group. Grants are made by the one and accepted with a promise of performance by the other."

Important as is the accounting of aid by the Corporation, of greater importance are the plans for the future. The strengthening of the staff, as reported, is preparation for expanding activities and new postwar programs. With a staff equipped to handle the needs of the immediate future, it will behoove those in the broad field of education to sense the extensive program to which the Corporation is to direct its interests. The fact is stressed that it is "further trying to limit itself to promotions which, if successful, may be generalized geographically, institutionally, professionally, and socially. . . . Emphasis will be on predetermined objectives, but always tempered with a willingness to consider exceptions." The Corporation is concerned with funds used for exploratory purposes, with the hope that public support will eventually be the means of continuation.

Five areas (international relations, citizenship, education, social sciences, and surveys) are discussed and conclusions stated. The basic interest of the entire report is summed up by the statements: "The goal chosen is adult apprecia-

tion of international responsibilities" and "Without peace and the prospect of peace, all other plans are worthless."

To implement the achievement of this goal, the Corporation has reasoned that the best attack on the problem is to put at the disposal of educational institutions funds to help diffuse the knowledge and understanding of international affairs. Believing that a decade or so remains in which to marshal opinion and information to prevent another international conflict, community leaders will be trained on the campus.

An informed citizenry can give support and sympathetic assistance to our foreign service. It will be another year before the line of activity will be determined for projects concerning foreign affairs as related to the citizen. This statement will be looked for with great eagerness by librarians. The implication of the report is that within ten years, by educating the college student of today, we will have trained citizens for future action. I am in total agreement, however, with the following statement which appeared in the recent report on *A Free and Responsible Press* (Commission on Freedom of the Press, University of Chicago Press, 1947), namely "It will not be enough to educate the rising generation; the time is too short. The educators have the enormous task of trying to make the peoples of the world intelligent now." I trust the program for the responsibilities of citizenship will be ready at an early date.

In the field of education the prime obligation of the future will be to "remain closely associated with the promotion of new enterprises in the colleges and with education in all its branches." The report states very flatly that support of operating costs of institutional programs has been ruled out by the simple fact that increased expenditures cannot be met by decreased foundation revenues or purchasing power.

Because army and navy funds will provide money for research and training in the field of natural sciences, the Corporation deliberately intends to give emphasis to the areas encompassed by the humanities and social sciences. In the field of the social sciences, where great progress can be made if the new social instruments are turned into action benefiting mankind, attention will be directed toward the development of techniques of getting knowledge into practical use. Interest in the "direction of simplification of language and material to accord with the capacity of the reader" will be noted by li-

brarians with fervent hope that this accomplishment may have a high priority.

Surveys, which have been supported in the past, will continue to receive the financing of the Corporation, but only "those which give promise of uncovering needs for reconstruction or revitalization in the fields with which the Corporation is identified." There is their additional warning that while surveys are one of the accepted means of arriving at a solution, a more rapid attack on a problem may come from the "perception of a single person" who may be aided, if necessary, by research assistants.

The report of the president ends with the statement, "Those with fresh ideas and the will to press them to a conclusion are the most welcome of visitors. It is for them that the Corporation treasures its income."

In the report of the secretary we find an accounting of the \$3,086,385 in grants made during the year 1945-46. Carnegie funds have gone into the development of tests and measurements for college and university students and graduates or have been used to attempt to improve the quality of undergraduate teaching. It is interesting to note that the last of the art and music study material has been allocated. Research projects range from a study on the life of George Washington to a study of health conditions in Isle Madame, Nova Scotia.

Of specific interest to librarians interested in community planning is the support of the New York State Citizens Council, which is composed of competent representatives of operating agencies which are planning constructively for the future.

Librarians and educators alike will remember 1946 as the year in which the Corporation released restrictions on endowment grants.

EMERSON GREENAWAY

Enoch Pratt Free Library
Baltimore, Maryland

Cervantes: A Bibliography. By RAYMOND L. GRISMER. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1946. Pp. 183. \$4.50.

Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra, Spain's greatest literary figure, was born four hundred years ago, presumably toward the end of September, 1547, for he was baptized in the church of Santa María la Mayor in Alcalá de Henares on October 9 of that year. The present bibliog-

raphy is, therefore, a fitting and timely homage to commemorate him who has no marble sepulcher and no great monument other than the one he provided for himself in his imperishable works, particularly his *Don Quijote*, his *Novelas Ejemplares*, and his miniature masterpieces, the *Entremeses*.

Professor Grismer is no amateur bibliographer, having already to his credit a useful *New Bibliography of the Literatures of Spain and Spanish America* and a *Reference Index to Twelve Thousand Spanish American Authors*. The present bibliography of Cervantes does not supersede, nor is it intended to, those of Rius, Seris, Ford, and others. It supplements them, being mainly a bibliography of studies that have been published up to 1946 on the life and works of Cervantes and on imitations of his works. It brings up to date the indexes dealing with the literature concerning him, but it does not list the countless editions and translations made into innumerable languages. Mr. Grismer's bibliography is well arranged and handy to use. It has a complete index of authors. It is particularly full and almost complete with regard to articles which have appeared not only in learned periodicals but also in popular magazines and newspapers issued in Europe, the United States, and Hispanic America. There are no glaring omissions. Under "Casalduero," however, the compiler missed an important contribution to the study of Cervantes: *Sentido y forma de las Novelas Ejemplares*, (Buenos Aires, 1943).

CARLOS CASTILLO

University of Chicago

Suma bibliográfica: Todo lo que concierne al libro, Vol. I, No. 1 (April, 1946). Director-Gerente: LAUTARO GONZÁLEZ PORCEL. Published monthly at Reforma 12-313, México, D.F. Pp. 32. \$3.00 per year; single copies \$0.30.

This monthly periodical proposes to include everything about the book, to serve as a bibliographical guide to Spanish-American readers, and to present some of the current problems of book production in Spanish America. Among these problems are the tendency of the literate public to read foreign literature in the original languages, particularly essays, novels, and biographies, and to relegate the native literary production to a secondary position without considering its real value. Scholars and readers are

invited to uncover whatever they think is the "tragedy" of the Spanish-American publishing achievements, and to express their views in *Suma bibliográfica*.

Some of the principal sections of this periodical are: "El Libro del Mes," "El Escritor Frente al Espejo," "Vida y Pasión del Libro," "Información Bibliográfica," "Presencia del Aire," "Registro Mensual de Libros," and the "Suplemento del Libro Extranjero."

Among the collaborators of *Suma bibliográfica* there are writers and poets well known in contemporary Spanish and Spanish-American literature. A few names which might be mentioned are León Felipe, Manuel Altolaguirre, Al-

fonso Reyes, Jorge Guillén, José Herrera Petere, and many others equally well known.

The information provided to readers, publishers, book-sellers, and libraries concerning the Spanish-American book trade and publishing houses in Mexico renders this periodical an interesting source of bibliographical information not only for Spanish Americans but also for others interested in the book production of that part of the world.

JORGE RIVERA-RUIZ

Agricultural Experiment Station Library
Puerto Rico University
Rto Piedras, Puerto Rico

BOOKS RECEIVED

- Are You Telling Them? How To Converse Well and Make Speeches.* By BESS SONDEL. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Pp. 292. \$2.95.
- Area Studies in American Universities.* By WILLIAM NELSON FENTON for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Programs. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xiv + 89. \$1.00.
- "Bibliografía puertorriqueña de fuentes para investigaciones sociales, 1930-1945." Vol. I. Provisional edition. Edited by AUGUSTO BIRD. Puerto Rico: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1946. Pp. viii + 180. 50 centavos. (Mimeographed.)
- A Bibliographic Classification Extended by Systematic Auxiliary Schedules for Composite Specification and Notation, Vol. II: Classes H-K, The Human Sciences.* By HENRY EVELYN BLISS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1947. Pp. 344. \$7.50.
- "Bibliographical Center Bulletin," No. 1 (April 24, 1947). Issued irregularly by the Bibliographical Center for Research, Rocky Mountain Region, Denver Public Library, Denver 2, Colorado. Pp. [6]. Free to libraries. (Mimeographed.)
- La Bibliothèque à l'école.* By LAURETTE-E. TOUPIN. Montreal: Fides, 1947. Pp. 85. \$0.60.
- Books and Army Education, 1944-1946: Preparation and Supply.* By J. H. P. PAYFORD. London: Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, 1946. Pp. 72. 6s.
- Books for Adult Beginners, Grades I to VII.* Compiled by the STAFF OF THE READERS' BUREAU OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF CINCINNATI. Rev. ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1946. Pp. 55. \$0.75.
- Books Published in the United States, 1945: A Selection for Reference Libraries.* By the COMMITTEE ON AID TO LIBRARIES IN WAR AREAS, INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS BOARD, AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. 37. \$0.50.
- El Catálogo de la Biblioteca del Congreso de los Estados Unidos.* By CARLOS VÍCTOR PENNA. Buenos Aires: Museo Social Argentino, 1947. Pp. 31.
- Check List of Negro Newspapers in the United States (1827-1946).* By WARREN BROWN. ("Lincoln University Journalism Series," No. 2.) Jefferson City, Mo.: School of Journalism, Lincoln University, 1946. Pp. 37.
- Civil Service and Libraries.* Prepared by the SUBCOMMITTEE ON CIVIL SERVICE RELATIONS OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION BOARD ON PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. 40. \$0.65.
- The College Teaching of English: A Bibliography, 1941-1944.* Edited by EDNA HAYS; prepared for the Committee on Bibliography, College Section, National Council of Teachers of English. ("Pamphlet Publications," No. 8.) Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1946. Pp. 64. \$0.50.
- Colony to Nation: A History of Canada.* By ARTHUR R. M. LOWER. Toronto: Longmans, Green & Co., 1946. Pp. xiii + 600. \$5.50.
- Cooperation in General Education. A Final Report of the EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE COOPERATIVE STUDY IN GENERAL EDUCATION.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xvii + 240. \$3.00.
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